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Although varying in approach and emphasis, the articles in this yearbook serve the twin goals of creating a literate citizenry and nurturing the habit and tradition of reading. Following a foreword and an editorial, articles in the yearbook are: "Reading Assessment at the Statewide Level" (Peter Afflerbach); "The Road to Literacy: Encounters in a Thought Centered Classroom" (Jane A. Haugh); "Implementing the Process Approach to Writing: Suggestions for Change Leaders" (Mariam Jean Dreher); "Computer Peer Mentoring with Reading Disabled Students" (Karen Hanus and Margaret Mary Sulentic); "Captioned Video Technology and Television-Based Reading Instruction" (Patricia S. Koskinen and others); "The Teacher as a Writing Model" (Anne Clark and James E. Pirkle); "Reading Workshop: A Forum for Learning How to Love Reading" (Suzanne F. Clewell and Faith Kusterer); "Helping Students Deal Effectively with Comprehension Failure" (Janice F. Almasi); and "An Open Letter to the SoMIRAC (State of Maryland International Reading Association Council) Membership" (Peter Winograd). Two book reviews are included. (SR)

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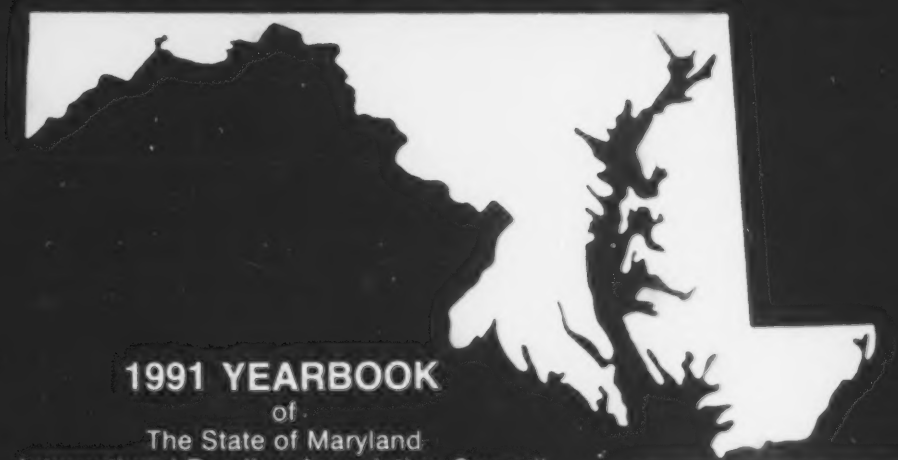
LITERACY: ISSUES AND PRACTICES



1991 YEARBOOK

of

The State of Maryland
International Reading Association Council

Volume 8

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Literacy: Issues and Practices

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FOREWORD

It gives me great pleasure to introduce the 1991 **SoMIRAC Yearbook.** Although this year's articles vary in approach and emphasis, they serve the twin goals of our organization which are to create a literate citizenry and to nurture the habit and tradition of reading. Reading expands one's horizons, encourages intercultural communication, enhances creative inquiry, deepens the love of learning, and facilitates the transmission of ideas from one generation to the next. In short, reading is one of the ingredients for a life well-lived and is the cornerstone of tradition and civilization.

Many of our daily experiences underscore the importance of reading in the search for a more meaningful life. Three such experiences come to mind which highlight this importance.

When I was recently writing the "Parents Remarks" for my daughter's bat mitzvah, I focused heavily on the importance of tradition and cultural values in helping young adults learn the meaning of life and prepare for a worthwhile and secure future. What struck me as I was writing those remarks was the tremendous emphasis we place on reading. My daughter had to read excerpts from the Torah in Hebrew and had to understand the meaning of the English translation in order to explain it to the congregation. This experience, though very personal, demonstrated to me the organic linkage between reading, the inculcation of values, and the transmittal of traditions.

A second experience which illustrates this linkage of family and tradition is parents' nightly reading to their children. I remember the times when my mom read to me and years later when my children cuddled in my lap so that I could read to them. Even today, if my dad is not on the golf course, he is engrossed in a book. Frequently, my daughters and I will "read together" by sitting side by side even though the books are different ones. I see by their intense concentration that they have come to view reading as a means of contemplation, as a defense against loneliness, and as a facilitator of dreams. I receive great pleasure now when they recommend books for me to read. In fact, one of those books, *The Devil's Arithmetic*, which is about the Holocaust from a young girl's point of view, I shared then at a book talk held by the Carroll County Reading Council.

The third experience regarding the value of reading involves the disintegration of the communist world and the rising demands for democracy worldwide. Following the collapse of the communist regime in Poland, a Polish delegation came to this country to seek written information on democracy. As a result of this visit, Governor Mario Cuomo of New York, researched, wrote, and published a book on democracy. The book, *Lincoln on Democracy*, was published simultaneously in English and in Polish. The Chinese and the Japanese have also expressed interest in having the book translated into their languages. Democratic ideals are being propagated through the written word to other nations thirsty for freedom. This example illustrates that reading is relevant to human dignity and that a literate citizenry is the best guarantee to an enlightened future.

In reviewing the articles which have appeared in our **Yearbook** since its first publication in 1984, I detect a common but multi-faceted theme running through these very impressive volumes. The theme is one of interest in learning about the nature and value of reading, examining the issues that surround the reading pro-

cess, developing an environment to foster reading as a lifelong habit, incorporating the latest technology and research into the teaching of reading, and exploring the relationships among reading, writing, and learning.

I would like to thank Suzanne Clewell and Shirley Wagoner who have completed their second year as Editors of the **Yearbook.** They are to be congratulated on their fine work which was recognized by the ERIC document clearinghouse which adopted the 1990 **Yearbook** in its entirety, a most unusual occurrence.

Judy Ramoy Johnstone
President
1990-1991

LITERACY: ISSUES AND PRACTICES, Volume 8, 1991

EDITORIAL

Maryland's New Statewide Reading and Writing Tests

Most of us have welcomed the imminent demise of the California Achievement Test (CAT) in the state of Maryland. We say "imminent" because its more recent takers are still under its influence, however imperfect, for good or for ill. We are pleased that the State has begun to redefine assessment and to develop a new instrument which more closely resembles instruction and reflects what we know about reading and writing processes. There is much dissatisfaction with most standardized testing and recognition that former standardized tests permit only the sampling of a limited slice of a student's learning. Let's examine the new look in assessment as evidenced by the new Maryland School Performance Assessment Program (MSPAP).

This program is designed as assessment for students in grades 3, 5, and 8 and will replace the CAT as the statewide assessment in those grades. The first unique characteristic of MSPAP is that instead of being a product assessment, it is a performance assessment. This enables us to measure many skills and outcomes which could not be measured with more traditional assessment instruments. Instead of choosing an answer in a multiple guess format, a student is required to do something or to perform a task of some kind which will demonstrate that student's competence in a particular area.

Certain common goals or outcomes in reading and writing have been identified as important goals for all students in the state of Maryland. These outcomes form the foundation of the Maryland school performance assessment. In a condensed form they are that students will: Have positive attitudes toward reading and writing, read and write in variety of text types and forms, read and write for a variety of purposes and audiences, and read and write from a variety of perspectives or stances.

In identifying the stances, Maryland has adopted the work done by Judith Langer (1989). She developed a paradigm for examining the way in which readers respond to text which builds on their understanding as they move through text. Mature readers respond to and interact with text in four ways which Langer calls stances. The four stances are global understanding, developing and extending interpretation, critical understanding, and personal response. These stances are integrated in the reading and writing tasks.

Undergirding these stances is the notion that the reader or writer must "construct meaning through a dynamic interaction among the reader, the text, and the context of the reading situation." This definition of reading from the Michigan Reading Association (1984) is the model upon which the Maryland Performance Assessment is based.

MSPAP is authentic both in terms of material used and tasks required. Rather than short isolated passages designed specifically for test use, MSPAP uses whole texts taken from children's literature and children's magazines. A variety of text types (e.g., fables, short narratives, essays, directions) reflecting the range of literacy is used. The test does not employ a multiple-choice format. Instead, students respond to open-ended questions and tasks which parallel those of good classroom instruction. Students may use a Venn diagram to compare their experiences with a character's experience. They may use another graphic organizer to relate changes in setting to the theme. They may even write a diary entry discussing events and a character's feelings.

A second unique characteristic of the Maryland Assessment is it assesses students' abilities to apply higher order thinking skills. The test does this by adopting "Dimensions of Thinking" as the framework which specifies knowledge, processes and skills needed by students. In responding to different tasks, students are using the critical thinking skills defined in "Dimensions of Thinking." They are comparing and contrasting what they read in one selection with what they find in another selection. For example, students may read a short story about survival in a cold climate and compare this story to the content found in an informative article about hypothermia. Students are using higher order thinking skills in all aspects of the task.

Thirdly, MSPAP has integrated the reading and writing tasks. Students are asked to write for specific purposes, for a variety of reasons, and for specific audiences. Purposes are to inform, to persuade, and to express personal ideas. As in the reading component, the tasks are set in appropriate real world contexts. Writing is linked to reading since students are required to write in response to reading. For example, after reading two selections about survival in the cold, students may be asked to write what they would have done to survive in the situation described in the short story. Here, students would demonstrate a personal response to an interpretation of text.

Finally, thematic organization undergirds each reading and writing instruction. Themes such as friendship, sports, energy, and nature, commonly found in the classroom, are employed for reading and writing tasks.

Although this assessment may not be perfect, it is a giant step toward a valid assessment of what we teach. It reflects current research and theory in reading and writing. It parallels good classroom instruction. The Maryland State Department of Education has taken the initiative to drastically change standardized testing. We in Maryland will support this initiative by working through the beginning stages of implementation. MSPAP is the first viable means of assessing students' literacy on a large-scale basis that we have seen!

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LITERACY: ISSUES AND PRACTICES, Volume 8, 1991

Reading Assessment at the Statewide Level

Peter Afflerbach
University of Maryland

Helping students develop as readers has been a consistent goal of education in the United States (Resnick & Resnick, 1977; Applebee, Langer, & Mullis, 1988; Anderson, Hiebert, Scott, & Wilkinson, 1985). Statewide assessment programs in reading are considered by many to be useful gauges of progress towards this goal. As a result, statewide reading assessment has assumed several roles, including determining minimum competency in reading, identifying students' reading difficulties so that they may be remediated, and determining those reading program features which foster the development of reading ability (Fiske, 1988; National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983; Wigdor & Garner, 1982).

A large percentage of statewide reading assessments consist of standardized, norm-referenced tests. Several factors contribute to the popularity (and the apparently uncritical acceptance) of standardized tests in the statewide assessment of reading (Airasian, 1987). Many American adults view standardized tests as fair, objective, and scientific. The tests are perceived as fair because all students take an identical test; and objective because test scores are fairly immune to bias introduced by teachers, principals, or parents. Tests are also perceived as scientific because they reduce the test-taker's performance to a numerical score. Statewide reading assessment is also considered efficient because it can provide reading ability data for each student at a particular grade level in a single testing session. However, the notion of "efficiency" of reading assessment may be more complex than is often acknowledged (Johnston, 1989).

A tradition of testing also contributes to the popularity of standardized reading tests. Standardized tests are linked symbolically to the maintenance of standards in education, and to traditional values. Thus, it is not surprising that recent calls for a return to basics in the curriculum and increasing school accountability are accompanied by statewide assessments, and their standardized testing components. In some instances, it may be argued that reading instruction program accountability for a school, district, or state has become reified as the administering of standardized reading tests.

In summary, the popularity of the current regimen of statewide reading assessments is attributable to several factors. Large scale reading assessment efforts are desired and trusted by a majority of American adults, as the efforts are perceived as ultimately leading to increased school achievement. It is the perception of many that the use of reading tests contributes to the maintenance (and perhaps the raising)

of educational standards, specifically reading performance, and that tests do so in an objective, fair, efficient, and scientific manner.

POTENTIAL USES OF STATEWIDE READING ASSESSMENT DATA

The evaluative data gathered in statewide reading assessments are used for varied administrative, diagnostic, and selection and classification purposes. Administratively, statewide reading assessment results may be used to monitor the effectiveness of educational systems. For example, when reading assessment provides feedback related to the effectiveness of a particular reading instructional program, the results may indicate the need for changing or maintaining particular instructional programs. Statewide reading assessment information may also be used in decisions related to allocation of resources. Funding for instructional programs which appear to contribute to student achievement, and allocation of funds for schools and districts with relatively low achievement may be determined, in part, by reading assessment scores.

State education departments may use statewide reading assessment data to help establish a degree of control in the process of education at the local school district level. By holding school districts accountable for coverage of particular curricular content by assessing students' learning of that content, a state can achieve some standardization in the content of instruction. Additionally, mandating reading assessment may be part of a state's attempt to create and monitor minimal educational standards.

At both local and statewide levels, reading assessment results may be used to communicate school accomplishments to various publics (Airasian, 1987). Unfortunately, this may lead to the development of educational discourse in which test scores are considered synonymous with achievement (Koretz, 1989), or in which the vocabulary used to describe achievement is restricted to test scores.

Used diagnostically, statewide reading assessment results may influence instructional decisions, including the placement of students in reading groups or the selection of a particular reading instructional program. For example, a relatively low score on a statewide reading assessment may be used as one indicator of a student's need for remediation in reading. As part of a portfolio of student achievement, a test score may corroborate other indicators of students' reading ability (Hiebert, 1991). Statewide reading assessment results are also used in prescribing instructional treatment and placement at the individual student level (Valencia, 1991). In addition, statewide reading assessment results may be used in the determination of teacher accountability, in which student performance on statewide assessment is considered an indicator of teacher effectiveness.

The selection and classification of students according to statewide reading assessment results occurs in a manner which might be described as before, during, and after reading instruction. Before reading instruction, students' performance on statewide reading assessments may be used for placement in a particular reading program within a school or classroom. For those students performing above or below average, placement in gifted and talented or remedial reading instruction may be recommended. During reading instruction, statewide reading assessment results may indicate the ongoing effectiveness of reading instruction, and suggest

areas of strength and weakness in both students' reading ability, and reading instructional programs. After reading instruction, students may be required to take "exit exams," which evaluate students' minimal competency in reading, or demonstrate that students are qualified for promotion or graduation.

CONCERNS WITH THE NATURE OF STATEWIDE ASSESSMENTS OF READING

The potential for statewide reading assessment to impact on educational funding, classroom instruction, student placement, and subsequent learning is great. Thus, it is important to consider critical issues related to the tests which comprise many statewide reading assessments. Recently, the reading research community has raised several concerns related to standardized testing of reading. These concerns include the congruence between reading tests and current knowledge of the reading process, and the ability of the types of tests found on statewide reading assessments to accurately assess the interactive processes of reading. Additional concerns include the impact of reading tests on the reading curriculum, and the impact of testing on classroom teachers.

Given the frequent use and potentially widespread influence which statewide reading assessment results may have on decision-making related to reading instruction, the validity of the reading assessment instruments is an important concern. Critics of standardized tests of reading cite the lack of congruence between the current understanding of the interactive nature of reading and the nature of statewide reading assessment tasks. Many of the instruments used in statewide reading assessment, and their ability to provide valid data related to students' reading ability, are suspect. While a comprehensive account of the potential weaknesses of standardized, norm-referenced tests which are found in most statewide assessments of reading is beyond the scope of this paper, several concerns will be considered in the following section.

Reading is currently viewed as a dynamic process in which the reader interacts with written language to construct meaning (Anderson, Hiebert, Scott, & Wilkinson, 1985; Van Dijk & Kintsch, 1983). A purposeful reader uses appropriate prior knowledge and a coordinated set of processes and strategies, which often include questioning and inferencing strategies, to help in this construction of meaning. Readers often read texts which are complex and substantial in length. Depending on the reader's prior knowledge and purposes for reading, a text may be interpreted in several ways.

Do current methods of reading assessment reflect an understanding of the dynamic, interactive nature of reading? Members of the reading research community do not think so (cf. Johnston, 1989; Valencia & Pearson, 1987; Wixson, Peters, Weber, & Roeber, 1987), and specific criticisms of reading tests are numerous. In contrast to our understanding of reading as a dynamic, interactive process, standardized, norm-referenced tests of reading are constructed to try to remove certain prior knowledge influences from the reading process. The texts found in standardized tests are often chosen so that their topics will be unfamiliar to most readers. Many reading tests assess the interactive process of reading as a set of discrete set of subskills, rather than a coordinated set of processes and strategies. In addition,

only one "correct" interpretation of the texts included in reading assessments is allowed, as the purpose of reading the text is determined by the test constructor and test situation, rather than by the reader. The tests use short and contrived texts, the likes of which are found only in test booklets. Finally, statewide reading assessments fail to tap readers' use of strategies because the tests have a comprehension product (as opposed to process) orientation.

In summary, evolution in our understanding of reading as a dynamic, interactive process is in contrast to the lack of change in the way many standardized tests assess reading. Methods of reading assessment, if they are to be considered valid and useful indicators of reading ability, should reflect a refined understanding of the nature of reading. At the core of this problem are issues related to the validity of most statewide reading assessments. Regardless of the popularity of tests, lack of validity of statewide reading assessments may contribute to instructional practice and decision-making which are at best inappropriate for, and at worst harmful to, students.

THE INFLUENCE OF TESTING ON CURRICULUM

A second concern related to statewide assessments of reading is the extent to which such assessments may determine the reading curriculum in schools. Consider the following teacher interview excerpt, which is taken from a recent study of teachers' methods of assessing literacy. In this excerpt, the teacher responded to a question which asked her to describe a typical instructional day in her 8th and 9th grade reading classes. The teacher is employed in a large, urban school district which places an extreme emphasis on standardized test scores:

> ". . . I have the eighth grade class and they're preparing to take the eighth grade state test . . . the Basic Skills Test . . . and the Iowa Test of Basic Skills . . . on the ninth grade they are prepared to take the TSP . . . the Test of Scholastic Progress . . . and they have to prepare for these skills . . . I have to teach them the skills that they need . . . follow the objectives . . . and prepare them to take the TBS (Test of Basic Skills) which is the exit exam . . . they're expected to be prepared in the class . . . so we have to constantly have these objectives in mind as we teach on a day to day basis" (Johnston, Weiss & Afflerbach, 1989)

Given this description, it is difficult to imagine that reading is ever taught. In the extreme, preparation for reading assessment may become the focus of instruction, as indicated by the above interview excerpt. Similarly, an emphasis on improving test scores may result in "teaching to the test," and avoidance or elimination of those reading skills or strategies which are not included on a particular reading assessment.

While the influence of high stakes assessments on the curriculum may not always be as pronounced as this (Valencia, 1991), the nature of the assessment may influence curriculum in a more subtle (but as pervasive) manner. For example, a school district might select instructional materials (such as a basal reader series) whose assessment components most closely match those of the reading tests which are administered at the statewide level. If testing influences the curriculum, and the majority of standardized testing assesses reading as a set of distinct subskills, it

should not come as a surprise that testing contributes to the continued skills approach to teaching reading that is followed in the majority of American elementary school classrooms.

THE INFLUENCE OF TESTING ON TEACHING

A third concern related to statewide reading assessment is the effect of assessment on the teaching profession. Use of statewide reading assessments and over-reliance on the evaluative data they provide may prove a hindrance to the increasing professionalism of teachers. Teachers must be "trusted" by administrators, parents, and the general public before their role in assessing students' reading abilities is more fully realized (Guba & Lincoln, 1983). Yet the continued emphasis on test scores works against the development of such trust, and contributes to the practice of overlooking, ignoring, or not seeking teacher-based evaluative information, however valuable it might be (Hiebert, 1991).

Administering statewide assessments may also contribute to the development of an adversarial relationship between student and teacher, whether or not the teacher endorses the reading assessment which he or she must administer. Additionally, if the reading curriculum is driven by statewide reading assessment concerns, teachers may be forced to give up further control of their professional decision-making. For example, a basal reader system which is similar in content and format to a state's particular reading assessment may be used exclusively for reading instruction. Within this restricted instructional program, teachers may be required to adhere to an instructional timetable which guarantees completion of particular basal reader units and prevents diversity of instruction.

CONCLUSIONS

The statewide assessment of reading is a popular practice. Such assessments are considered by many to be an accurate measure of progress towards educational goals. The statewide assessment of reading is representative of a tradition of large-scale testing in the United States, testing which is considered objective, fair, efficient, and scientific by many. The data gathered in statewide reading assessments are used for many purposes, including administrative, diagnostic, and selection and classification.

As popular as statewide reading assessments are, serious questions about the ability of the majority of the assessments to provide data related to the dynamic, interactive process of reading have been raised. In general, statewide reading assessment instruments have been slow in incorporating revisions which reflect an increased understanding of how reading "works."

There are several additional concerns related to many statewide reading assessments, especially those assessments which use a standardized, norm-referenced format. Statewide assessments of reading may influence the instructional materials and methods which are used in the class. Teaching to the test will lead to greater constraints on what is taught and how it is taught. Teachers' professional decisions about what to teach and how to teach it may be preempted by administrative or statewide curriculum directives which mandate instruction to prepare students to take tests, rather than to help students become better readers.

In summary, statewide assessment is a popular gauge of educational achievement in a subject which is traditionally valued: reading. However, issues related to the validity of statewide reading assessment, and the influence of assessment on reading curriculum and instruction suggest that the nature of reading assessment and the uses of assessment data should be carefully considered. Those who develop and use statewide reading assessments may be in a position to balance the need for measures of students' reading ability with the need for increased accuracy of the measures. The result may be more effective statewide reading assessment programs, and the fostering of increased reading ability among students.

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LITERACY: ISSUES AND PRACTICES, Volume 8, 1991

The Road to Literacy: Encounters in a Thought Centered Classroom

Jane A. Haugh
The Center for Developing Learning Potentials
Silver Spring

Case Study Observations:

> Nathaniel was "scribbling" with a pencil on a piece of red construction paper. Suddenly, he jumped up and proudly pretended to read his scribbles. "Justin . . . is . . . my . . . brother! Look!!! Look at the thoughts I wrote! I wrote, 'Justin . . . is . . . my . . . brother' on this paper." As he folded the paper he continued, "Do you have a rubber band? I want to put a rubber band around my thoughts and give them to my brother. He can open this present today" (Haugh, in press).

Theorists and researchers would describe this scene as a child emerging into literacy (Klein, 1986). This scene could also be described as a precious moment in a child's life as he discovers the ability to communicate thoughts to his personal audience—his brother. It is interesting to note that Nathaniel verbally referred to his scribbles as "thoughts." His emerging awareness and knowledge of his cognitive resources to communicate thoughts may have been influenced by his encounters in a Thought Centered Classroom.

DEFINITION OF A THOUGHT CENTERED CLASSROOM

A Thought Centered Classroom is a place where children explore, discover, think, and communicate thoughts about the world. Teachers foster literacy development by continually helping children make sense of learning, thinking, and communicating. Classroom encounters arouse children's awareness and monitoring of:

Learning — as using our MINDS to EXPLORE THOUGHTS WE KNOW and DISCOVER NEW THOUGHTS about ourselves and the world;
Thinking — as using our MINDS in different ways to EXPLORE and DISCOVER THOUGHTS; and
Communicating — as using our MINDS to share thoughts and ideas.

It is important to note that **learning, thinking,** and **communicating** have been defined as unique cognitive processes solely to facilitate children's awareness of the purpose of these endeavors and to stimulate their awareness of the "family of feelings" they may encounter as they monitor these processes. Bruner (1971), Flavell (1981), and Fitts and Posner (1962) have maintained that individuals need to

be cognitively clear about the purposes of tasks in order to implement appropriate strategies as they strive to achieve their goals efficiently and effectively. In a Thought Centered Classroom, it is efficacious to encourage children to become aware of the purpose of learning, thinking, and communicating so that they have opportunities to implement appropriate strategies for these cognitive processes.

Flavell (1981) has elaborated further that metacognitive knowledge of the purpose of tasks may influence the metacognitive experiences individuals may encounter as they engage in cognitive endeavors. In other words, helping children become cognitively clear about the purpose of **learning, thinking,** and **communicating** may heighten their awareness of the "family of feelings" they may encounter as they engage in these processes. Flavell noted that such feedback may facilitate their efforts as they strive to achieve their goals.

In a Thought Centered Classroom, children are encouraged to become cognitively clear about the purpose of **learning** and prompted to notice thoughts, feelings, ideas, and sensations they may encounter as they use their minds to explore thoughts they *know* about a topic and to discover *new* thoughts. Children are also encouraged to become cognitively clear about the purpose of **thinking,** and prompted to notice feelings, ideas, and sensations they may encounter as they use their minds in different ways to react to meaningful thoughts and discoveries during learning. For listening, speaking, writing, and reading, children are encouraged to become cognitively clear about the **communicative purpose** of these endeavors, and guided to notice ideas, feelings, sensations, they encounter as they use their minds to communicate thoughts with others. Helping children become aware of the purposes of **learning, thinking,** and **communicating,** and guiding them to actively notice the "family of feelings" associated with these cognitive processes, may provide children with important feedback about their cognitive resources, goals, and actions for these endeavors.

Thus, in a Thought Centered Classroom, teachers strive to stimulate children's metacognitive awareness and monitoring of: themselves as learners, thinkers, and communicators; the purpose of **learning, thinking,** and **communicating;** and effective strategies for these cognitive endeavors. Teachers become mentors, facilitating children's awareness of how they are using their minds as they explore, discover, think, and communicate thoughts. Cuing children to monitor this self-knowledge and associated "family of feelings" may influence their efficiency and effectiveness as they travel the road to literacy.

Idea to Example:

Encounters in a Thought Centered Classroom can be examined in the ensuing case study observations. Please note how the teacher stimulates the child's awareness and knowledge about himself as a thinker and a communicator. Specific words and phrases describe the way Nathaniel uses his mind to communicate thoughts on paper. The teacher "captures the moment" to trigger his awareness of important thoughts, feelings, and sensations about himself.

> The teacher held the folded red paper in her hands with great care and said, "Nathaniel open your special package and read your thoughts." With excitement and anticipation on both of their faces, Nathaniel read

his scribbles, "Justin . . . is . . . my . . . brother!" He read his scribbles with meaning and expression! The teacher and the child's conversation followed in this way:

Teacher: Nathaniel, the thoughts you wrote are very special! You are a Thinker and a Writer! You used your mind, your eyes, and your hands to write your thoughts on this paper.

Nathaniel: (A proud smile appeared upon his face) I want to put a rubber band around this present so I can give these "thoughts" to Justin today!

Teacher: That's a great idea! How about a beautiful ribbon to tie around your special present.

Nathaniel: Yes! a ribbon will be great!

Teacher: Oh! Nathaniel, your thoughts are very special! Let's write your "thoughts" in words so that we can read what you wrote on this special day.

Nathaniel: O.K. but, I don't want you to write on top of my "thoughts!"

Teacher: I will write your "thoughts in words" at the very bottom of your paper.

Nathaniel: (A broad smile beamed upon his face, and he nodded with approval.)

With a black felt tip marker, the teacher printed Nathaniel's thought at the bottom of his scribbling, "Justin is my brother." Then, she drew an arrow pointing up to the scribbling on the paper. At the edge of the paper she wrote: "Thoughts by Nathaniel;" and the date. As she finished, she said, "Now, everyone will be able to read and enjoy the special thoughts you wrote for Justin on this paper. Your thoughts make sense!"

For awhile, they sat admiring Nathaniel's efforts at writing, then very proudly, he took his paper and folded it carefully. "Now let's get that ribbon, so I can give this present to Justin," he announced. They found a beautiful green ribbon and tied it around his folded package. Next, the teacher wrote a note to Nathaniel's family celebrating his efforts as a thinker and a writer composing thoughts for his brother. Then, in a flash, Nathaniel bolted into the cloak closet to place his precious treasure filled with thoughts for his brother into his book bag (Haugh, in press).

In this case study, the teacher "captured the moment" to activate Nathaniel's awareness of thoughts, feelings, and sensations about himself as a thinker and a communicator. The teacher became a mentor, triggering Nathaniel's awareness and knowledge of his cognitive resources by using specific words and phrases in the conversation to describe the way he used his mind. Further analysis of the interactions reveals that the teacher

- bolstered Nathaniel's self-knowledge as a thinker and a communicator by saying:
  "Your thoughts are special!"
  "You are a thinker and a writer!"
  "You used your mind, your eyes, and your hands to write your thoughts on paper."
- fostered a sense of pride and ownership by cherishing his scribbles and tying a ribbon around his present for his brother.
- nurtured Nathaniels' sense of communicating by writing his dictated thoughts on his paper and entitling the paper "Thoughts by Nathaniel."

- extended the communicative experience by writing a message to Nathaniel's parents celebrating his efforts to think and write his thoughts to his brother.
- established an awareness of the communicative purposes between writing and reading as well as a strategy for these processes by saying, "Everyone will be able to read and enjoy the special thoughts you wrote for Justin on this paper. Your thoughts make sense!"

This case study demonstrated one way Thought Centered Classroom teachers may stimulate children's awareness and monitoring of their cognitive resources. Children experience direct encounters that initiate (1) awareness of themselves as learners, thinkers, and communicators; (2) awareness of the purpose of learning, thinking, and communicating; and (3) awareness of efficient strategies for these cognitive processes. Such encounters may facilitate their efforts with these cognitive endeavors.

A THEORETICAL FOUNDATION FOR A THOUGHT CENTERED CLASSROOM

In the areas of cognitive and development psychology, the literature regarding cognitive monitoring provides the foundation for a Thought Centered Classroom. Cognitive monitoring refers to an individual's awareness and monitoring of cognitive goals, metacognitive knowledge, cognitive actions, and metacognitive experiences during learning endeavors (Flavell, 1981). Figure 1 illustrates the theoretical interactions that may occur among these four components and that may influence an individual's performance during any cognitive endeavor.

Cognitive goals refer to "tacit or explicit objectives that instigate or maintain the cognitive enterprise" (Flavell, 1981, p. 40). In other words, the goals individuals

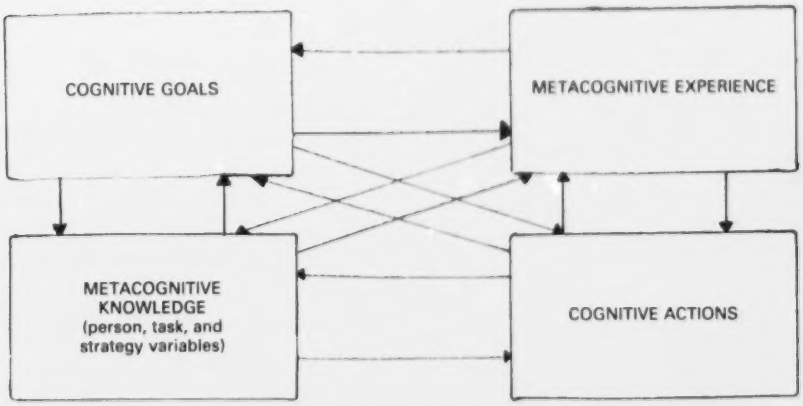

Figure 1 A theoretical model of cognitive monitoring.
Note. From "Cognitive Monitoring" by J. H. Flavell. In W. P. Dickson (Ed.), *Children's oral communication skills*, p. 40. Copyright 1981 by the Academic Press. Reprinted by permission.

have for tasks direct the stored-knowledge they use, the thoughts and feelings they encounter, and the actions they take to complete tasks.

Metacognitive knowledge refers an individual's awareness and use of "accumulated world knowledge" in regard to (1) one's view of self (person variables), (2) information related to the purpose of tasks (task variables), and (3) strategies needed to complete tasks (strategy variables). Relevant portions of these three categories of stored knowledge may be retrieved and used during learning endeavors either "automatically or deliberately either with or without entering consciousness" (Flavell, 1981, p. 46).

A number of authorities have described the impact metacognitive knowledge has upon the learners' efficiency and effectiveness during tasks. Educators have explained in depth: (1) the repercussions self-concept has upon learners' performance —person variables (Nicholls, 1979; Purkey, 1984; Ryan, 1982; Quandt, 1984); (2) task variables—the importance of understanding the task and what it demands (Brown, 1980; Frederikson & Dominic, 1981; Harste, 1982; Johns 1974; Garner & Kraus, 1982); and (3) the implications of knowing and using appropriate strategies during tasks—strategy variables (Bereiter & Bird, 1985; Davey, 1983; Michenbaum & Biemiller, 1990; McTighe & Lyman, 1988; Palinscar & Brown, 1984; Paris, Cross, & Lipson, 1984). Awareness and use of knowledge in these three categories may have enormous power to influence learners' efficiency and effectiveness during tasks (Flavell, 1981; Garner, 1988).

Metacognitive experiences are "conscious experiences (ideas, thoughts, feelings, or 'sensations') related to any aspect" of a learning endeavor (Flavell, 1981, p. 46). This relatively new area of cognitive development has been described by Flavell (1981) as "sudden thoughts, feelings, or realizations" about yourself, the purpose of the task at hand, or strategies that may facilitate the completion of a task. Metacognitive experiences may influence one's goals, actions, accumulated knowledge and may occur whenever "you do a lot of conscious cognition, thereby providing many cognitive events" (Flavell, 1981, p. 49).

Metacognitive experiences may occur when individuals strive to accomplish a particular goal and they realize that events are moving along smoothly, or notice that progress has slowed down or stopped. Metacognitive experiences may occur during learning endeavors as individuals say to themselves, "I think I can complete this task," or "I'll never be able to complete this task." Sudden thoughts, feelings, ideas, or sensations may also occur during specific tasks like writing or reading. Writers or readers may encounter such feelings as "this makes sense to me," or "this does not make sense to me." Such thoughts may or may not arouse individuals to choose appropriate "fix-up" strategies during communication.

According to Flavell (1981), thoughts, feelings, ideas, and sensations represent a "family of feelings" that influence an individual's strategic behaviors towards a goal. Because the area of metacognitive experiences is so new, the research literature is rather sketchy. However, authorities have noted that metacognitive experiences (thoughts, feelings, or sensations) may influence performance during learning endeavors.

Cognitive actions refer to the actual "actions" implemented by individuals as they strive to accomplish a task. The actions of learners may be influenced by their

goals, their accumulated knowledge, and the "family of feelings" they encounter during learning endeavors. Reciprocally, the actions of learners may influence their goals, accumulated knowledge, and thoughts they experience.

Hence, cognitive monitoring of any learning endeavor is influenced by an individual's cognitive goals, metacognitive knowledge, metacognitive experiences, and cognitive actions. These cognitive components interact at lightening speed and influence efficiency or inefficiency during learning endeavors. The arrows in Figure 1 illustrate the complex, simultaneous interactions among theses components and represent a variety of cognitive events that may arise during learning experiences.

Within this cognitive framework, Flavell (1981) implicated that schools should set about fostering metacognitive knowledge and experiences by engaging children in cognitive enterprises that produce specific metacognitive ideas and feelings. During learning endeavors, teachers should try to get children to attend to the purpose of tasks, and to the "family of feelings" that may occur. Teachers should help children "understand their meanings and implications for subsequent cognitive actions" (Flavell, 1981, p. 57). This means getting children cognitively involved through active participation in tasks, awareness of the purpose of tasks, and encouragment of any conscious thoughts, feelings, ideas, or sensations that provide feedback about the task. Flavell (1981) explained that, "concrete metacognitive experiences and associated actions can provide input to permanent metacognitive knowledge, which in turn will influence future experiences and actions" (p. 57).

IMPLICATIONS FOR CREATING A THOUGHT CENTERED CLASSROOM

Cognitive monitoring forms the foundation for creating a Thought Centered Classroom. Personally meaningful **learning, thinking,** and **communicating** experiences are planned and implemented in the classroom to initiate awareness of the purpose of tasks, and awareness of thoughts, feelings, ideas, and sensations that may provide important feedback to children. In this way, Thought Centered Classrooms kindle children's awareness of their own cognitive resources, goals, and actions during learning, thinking, and communicating.

More specifically, in a Thought Centered Classroom, cognitive monitoring of **learning** means creating a "learning atmosphere" where children experience the role of using their minds to explore and discover thoughts. Children are encouraged to notice thoughts, feelings, ideas, and sensations they may encounter as they explore thoughts they *know* about a topic, discover *new* thoughts, and react to their discoveries. As children actively experience learning endeavors and encounter the associated "family of feelings," they may become aware of important feedback about their own cognitive resources, goals, and actions for learning.

Furthermore, in a Thought Centered Classroom, cognitive monitoring of **thinking** means creating a "thinking atmosphere" where children experience the role of using their minds in different ways. Children are encouraged to notice thoughts, feelings, ideas, and sensations they may encounter as they react to thoughts they explored, discovered, analyzed, synthesized, or evaluated. As children actively experience thinking and encounter the associated "family of

feelings," they may become aware of important feedback about their own cognitive resources, goals, and actions for thinking.

Equally important, in a Thought Centered Classroom, cognitive monitoring of **communication** means creating a "communicative atmosphere" where children experience the role of using their minds to share thoughts and ideas. Children are encouraged to notice thoughts, feelings, ideas, and sensations they may encounter as listeners reacting to the communications of speakers, speakers reacting to the communications of the listeners, writers reacting to the communications of readers, and readers reacting to the communications of writers. As children actively experience communication and encounter the associated "family of feelings," they may become aware of important feedback about their own cognitive resources, goals, and actions for communicating.

Thus, a Thought Centered Classroom is designed to initiate metacognitive experiences and associated actions that may facilitate children's awareness of metacognitive knowledge of learning, thinking, and communicating. Children are helped to become aware of and monitor their cognitive resources as they actively experience the thrill of discovery during learning, the stimulation of thinking, and the excitement of sharing thoughts and ideas through a variety of forms of communication. Such enriching encounters may influence their efficiency and effectiveness with these cognitive endeavors.

IMPLICATIONS FOR THOUGHT CENTERED CLASSROOM TEACHERS

Teachers create Thought Centered Classrooms by fostering children's awareness and monitoring of important categories of metacognitive knowledge. Teachers help each child become aware of and develop knowledge of:

* "self" as a learner, a thinker, and a communicator.
* the purpose of learning, thinking, and communicating.
* strategies for learning, thinking, and communicating.

Thought Centered Classroom teachers create, invent, modify, and design classroom encounters to help children "make sense" of learning, thinking, and communicating. Teachers become supportive mentors, facilitating children's awareness of how they are using their minds, and awareness of the "family of feelings" that may occur during these cognitive endeavors.

THEORY INTO PRACTICE: ENCOUNTERS IN A THOUGHT CENTERED CLASSROOM

Encounters in a Thought Centered Classroom are designed to facilitate children's awareness of their cognitive resources. The following notions represent one bold step toward encouraging children to cognitively monitor their personal adventures as they travel the road to literacy.

1. Help children "make sense" of learning, thinking, and communicating.

Help children "make sense" of learning, thinking, and communicating by posting a chart on your classroom wall that describes how we use our minds. Through discussions and meaningful experiences, encourage children to view:

Learning — as using our MINDS to EXPLORE and DISCOVER THOUGHTS about ourselves and the world;

Thinking — as using our MINDS in different ways to EXPLORE and DISCOVER THOUGHTS; and

Communicating — as using our MINDS to share thoughts and ideas.

Refer to this chart before, during, and after learning, thinking, and communicating experiences to remind yourself and the children about the *purpose* of these cognitive endeavors.

2. Invent, modify, and create classroom experiences that inspire children to use their minds in different ways.

Help make learning, thinking, and communicating come alive throughout the entire school year. Design authentic experiences in the classroom or outdoors for you and the children to use your minds as you explore and discover thoughts during learning. Make each school day a real adventure for everyone to experience the thrill of exploring thoughts they *know* about a topic and discovering *new* thoughts. For example, when learning about a topic such as honey bees, provide time for the children to think and discuss thoughts and feelings they *know* . . . , *wonder* . . . , and *predict* . . . about honey bees. Write the children's thoughts in these categories on a large chart and post in the classroom for all to ead and enjoy.

Next, experience the exhilarating "feelings of discovery" during learning through authentic experiences. Help children become aware of thoughts, feelings, and sensations they encounter as they discover thoughts about honey bees through adventures reading books, observing honey bees outdoors, watching films, or listening to tape books, etc. Help the children experience the "family of feelings" they encounter as they discover thoughts during learning. Provide time for the children to share their "feelings of discovery." Then, write their discoveries about honey bees on the chart. Probing our minds to examine the "family of feelings" we encounter as we examine the thoughts we *know* about a topic and the thoughts we *discovered* are important realizations during learning. Experience the thrill of learning with the children in your classroom. Help them become aware of the wonders of their minds and aware that Thoughts! Thoughts! Thoughts! are everywhere to be explored and discovered.

Talk about "THINKING during LEARNING!" Discuss the different ways we use our minds during learning. Explain how we use our minds to wonder, predict, observe, ask, compare, organize, identify, create, invent, examine, solve, design, combine ideas, judge, evaluate, share opinions, discuss, figure out, count, calculate, read, write, draw, listen, and speak. For example, in the honey bee adventure described above, help the children become aware of the different ways they used their minds to think and learn more about honey bees. Discuss the notion that they used their minds to *analyze* thoughts they knew, wondered, and predicted, about

honey bees. Help them become aware that they used their minds to discover thoughts about honey bees by watching films, reading books, listening to tape books, and exploring the outdoors, etc.

Provide time for the children to use their minds to *evaluate* their learning endeavors and share their personal opinions about their "Most Important Discoveries." Next, provide time for the children to use their minds to *synthesize*, create, or do something with their ideas through art, music, drama, or writing to share their discoveries. Discuss the "family of feelings" the children encountered as they used their minds in different ways for thinking during learning. Real experiences combined with encouraging and supportive conversations about these mind processes may facilitate children's awareness of their cognitive resources as thinkers.

Create classroom encounters that help children realize that their thoughts are very special and are appreciated. As children talk, learn, scribble, draw, paint, write, or read, help them discover that they are using their minds to communicate thoughts that "make sense." Create opportunities for you and the children to become senders and receivers of thoughts and ideas. As books are read or films are watched, help the children become aware of the notion that thoughts are being shared by others. Here is an example:

* As you read a book, talk about the author as though he or she is a *real person*. Read the author's name and say, "This is the person who wrote the thoughts in this book for us to read, discover, and enjoy!"

  Note: It is especially important to help children become aware that "Books are Thoughts" when using basal readers, science, social studies, and math text book materials. Talk about the group of authors as real people. Talk about how they used their minds to write their thoughts.

  If the reading selection has great pictures but structured unimaginative text, provide opportunities for children to use their minds to rewrite and recreate the material. Children will discover the notion that they have the ability to react critically, dictate, or compose their own thoughts about the reading selection.

* Read the illustrator's name and say, "This is the person who drew the picture thoughts in this book. Explain how the illustrations help us make pictures in our minds as we read."

* Discuss the notion that thoughts are everywhere in our world. Read labels on cans, bottles, packages, and boxes. Read signs that dot the hallways and the classroom. Help children discover the notion that meaningful thoughts are everywhere and print "makes sense" (Haugh, in press).

Throughout the day, encourage everyone to share, draw, dictate, or write, thoughts they discovered. Help the children become aware of the "family of feelings they encounter as they use their minds to share thoughts that "make sense." For example:

* Create opportunities for children to share their thoughts with others through scribbling, drawing, writing, dictating, or drawing.

* Compliment each child's efforts by saying, "You are a Thinker and a Writer! You are using your mind, your eyes and your hands to write your thoughts on this paper. The thoughts you wrote make sense."
* Write the child's dictated thoughts, if necessary, at the bottom of the paper using black marker.
* Label their work, "Thoughts by (*write the child's name*)," and write the date.
* Place children's creations on a unique bulletin board labeled *Special Thoughts*. Explain to the class that the bulletin board provides a place where treasured thoughts can be shared with classmates, family members, and friends (Haugh, in press). Discuss the "family of feelings" they encounter as they share their thoughts with others.

Sending and receiving thoughts that "make sense" will facilitate children's awareness and knowledge of their cognitive resources as communicators.

3. Use words and phrases to describe children using their minds during learning, thinking, and communicating.

The following text provides specific examples of words and phrases that you might say during daily conversations when you "catch" children using their minds for learning, thinking, and communicating. Remember, these are only a few examples, so feel free to add, delete, or modify these statements to best meet your needs and the needs of your students.

Words and Phrases to Describe Adventures in Learning. Learning involves using your mind to explore thoughts you *know* about a topic and *discover* new thoughts. The following subsection provides a few examples of words and phases that facilitate children's awareness of their potentials for learning. When you "catch" children using their minds to explore thoughts they *know* or discover *new* thoughts, you might say:

* "Wow! Good spotting! You are using your mind and your eyes to observe thoughts about the pictures in our story!"
* "Wow! That's an interesting question! You are using your mind to wonder and ask questions about why the leaves are falling from the trees!"
* "You are a DISCOVERER! You are using your mind to connect the thoughts you *know* . . . with *new* thoughts! Your discoveries are very special!"

Words and Phrases to Describe Adventures in Thinking. Thinking involves using your mind in different ways—analyzing, synthesizing, and evaluating thoughts about the world. The following subsections provide specific examples of words and phrases that facilitate children's awareness of these thinking processes.

a. Analyzing Thoughts refers to using your mind to organize, compare, categorize, identify, diagram, examine, conclude, describe thoughts etc. When you "catch" children using their minds to analyze thoughts, you might say:

* "You are a THINKER!!! You are using your mind to organize these thoughts!"

* "You are a THINKER!!! You are using your mind to compare how _____ is related to _____!"

* "You are a THINKER!!!! You are using your mind to examine the parts or features of this story!"

b. Synthesizing Thoughts refers to using your mind to predict, create images, solve problems, design, invent, modify, combine thoughts, etc. When you "catch" children using their minds to synthesize thoughts, you might say:

* "You are a THINKER!! You are using your mind to predict thoughts about our story!"

* "Thank you for describing the picture thoughts forming in your mind! Good Thinking!"

* "Good Thinking! You are using your mind to think of ways to solve the problem!"

c. Evaluating Thoughts refers to using your mind to share your opinions, judge ideas, judge the quality of your work, discuss, prove/disprove, prioritize, explain why, etc. When you "catch" children using their minds to evaluate thoughts, you might say:

* "Wow! You are a THINKER! You are using your mind to share your opinion about the film we just watched!"

* "Good Thinking! You are using your mind to judge the quality of your work!"

* "You are a THINKER! You are using your mind to think about the best solution to solve this problem _____!"

Words and Phrases to Describe Adventures in Communication

Communication involves using our minds to share thoughts and ideas with others through listening, speaking, drawing, painting, scribbling, dictating, writing, or reading (Haugh, in press). When you "catch" children using their minds to communicate thoughts, you might say:

* "Great Thinking! You are using your mind to share your thoughts with our class! Your thoughts are very special!"

* You are a Writer! You are using your mind to write your thoughts on paper for others to read, discover, and enjoy!"

* You are a Reader! You are using your mind to discover and make sense of the author's thoughts!"

Remember, always react positively to the thoughts and actions of the children. Use specific words and phrases that you feel comfortable with to help children

become aware of the ways they are using their minds. Cuing children to become aware of their cognitive resources for learning, thinking, and communicating may influence their effectiveness with these tasks.

At first, you may feel a little awkward talking to your class about exploring, discovering, and communicating thoughts! But eventually, you will feel comfortable and proud of the way you are nurturing each child's awareness of "self" as a learner, a thinker, and a communicator of thoughts (Haugh, in press).

4. *Think-aloud and model how you use your mind to explore, discover, think, and communicate thoughts.*

"Talk about Thinking!" When you "catch" yourself using your mind in different ways, think-aloud and model your actions by saying:

* "I am using my mind to solve this problem . . ."

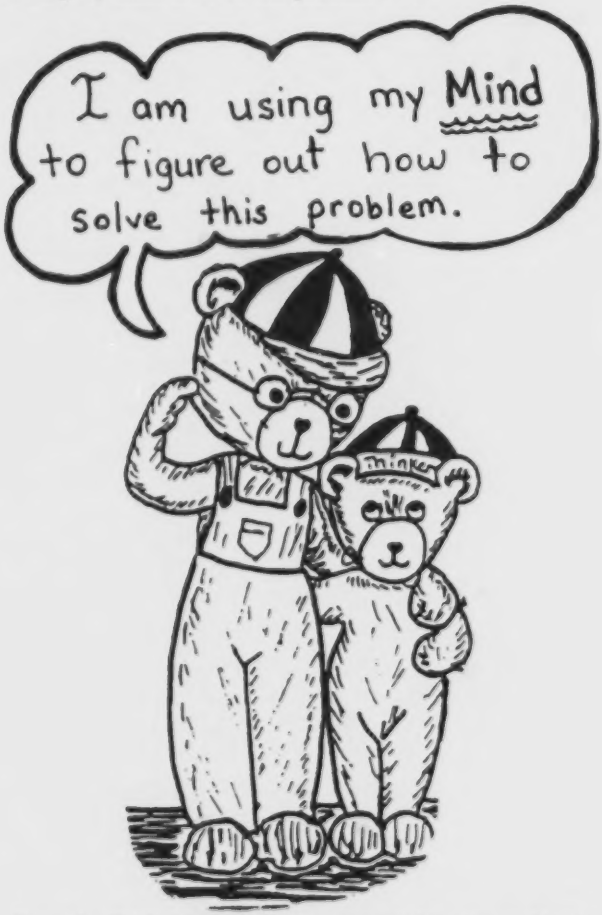

Figure 2 Think-aloud model using your mind to solve problems.

* "I am using my mind to write my thoughts

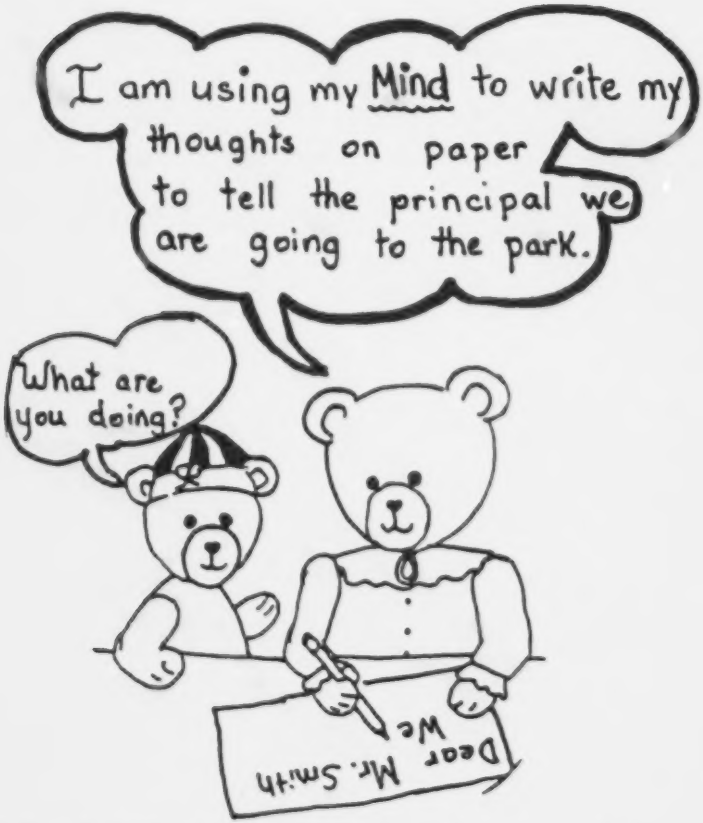
I am using my Mind to write my thoughts on paper to tell the principal we are going to the park.
What are you doing?
Dear Mr. Smith
We

Figure 3 Think-aloud and model using your mind to write your thoughts.

* "I am using my mind to reread/rewrite this paragraph

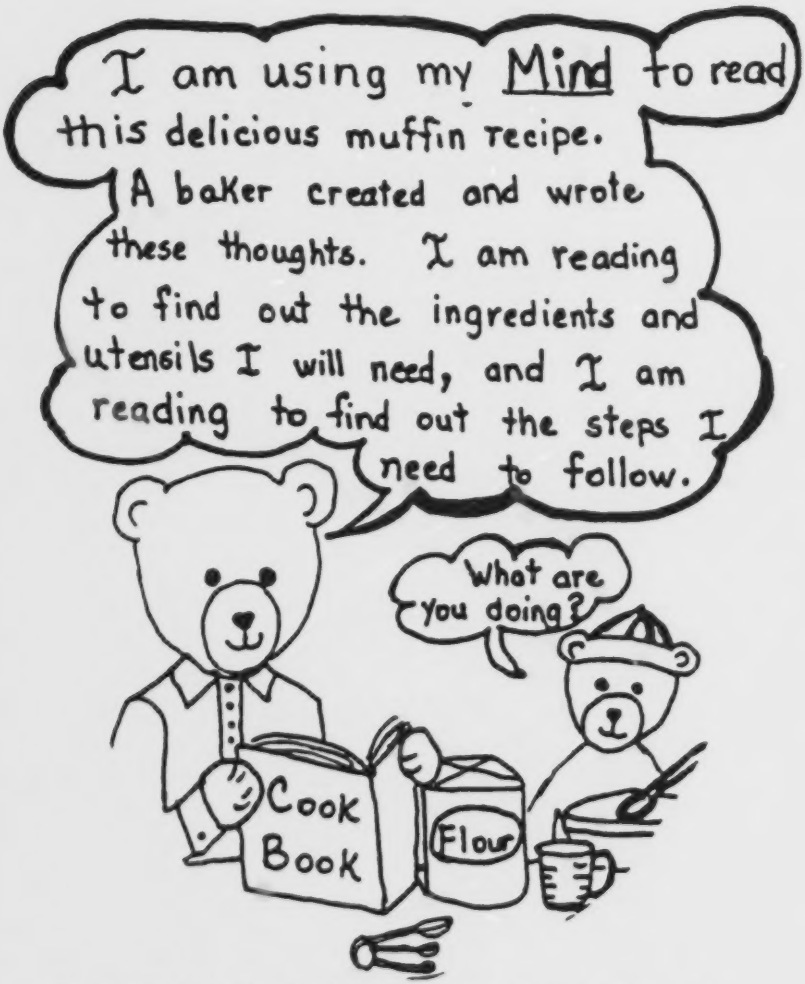
I am using my Mind to read this delicious muffin recipe. A baker created and wrote these thoughts. I am reading to find out the ingredients and utensils I will need, and I am reading to find out the steps I need to follow.
What are you doing?
Cook Book
Flour

Figure 4 Think-aloud and model using your mind to reread/rewrite thoughts.

These are only a few examples of ways to think-aloud and model learning, thinking, and communicating for children. Other ideas are offered by Davey (1983), Meichenbaum (1977), and Paris (1987). Experiment and create your own Think-aloud modeling examples that occur during the school day. Paris (1987) has noted that teachers can help children observe, understand, and practice using their

minds during comprehension and other school tasks. As you Think-Aloud and model thinking it is important to

1. Demonstrate how you use your mind during a task.
2. Explain when and why you use your mind in different ways.
3. Think-aloud and model how you use your mind flexibly and selectively.
4. Think-aloud and model how you use your mind to solve problems that arise during a task.

Demonstrating your cognitive resources may provide children with important feedback about learning, thinking, and communicating.

CONCLUSION

Encounters in Thought Centered Classrooms are designed to arouse children's awareness of: themselves as **learners, thinkers,** and **communicators,** the purpose of learning, thinking, and communicating, and efficient strategies for these cognitive processes. Teachers are encouraged to invent, modify, and create meaningful experiences where children have opportunities to become aware of the "family of feelings" they may encounter as they explore, discover, think, and communicate thoughts about the world. Such encounters may stimulate children's awareness of their cognitive resources, goals, and actions, and may facilitate their efforts as they travel the road toward literacy.

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LITERACY: ISSUES AND PRACTICES, Volume 8, 1991

Implementing the Process Approach to Writing: Suggestions for Change Leaders

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Some years ago, a friend in charge of instructional improvement at a school related a story. She described her effort to promote grouping as a way to improve instructional effectiveness at a middle school. She explained how in a series of workshops she had described the values of grouping for addressing the multiple levels of achievement in a classroom and had described how to implement the practice. One morning my friend was thrilled to be greeted by an excited teacher who asked her to visit her classroom and see how well grouping was going. What my friend found was indeed grouping but not what she had intended. The students were sitting in groups. But each student was working on exactly the same assignment.

It is now years later. Can such implementation problems still be expected? Unfortunately the answer is yes. This paper will discuss potential implementation problems, using as an example the process approach to writing—an approach which is gaining increasing popularity. First, this paper will briefly describe the process approach to writing. Then, it will address three potential implementation problems that need to be recognized by both inservice and preservice teachers educators: a) incomplete understanding of the approach, as in the story above; b) rejection of the approach; and c) difficulty in implementation due to external constraints. Finally, this paper offers recommendations for avoiding these problems.

THE PROCESS APPROACH TO WRITING

As D'Aoust (1987) has noted, viewing writing as a process means that the "demand for a product has been replaced by a concern for the series of stages . . . which make up the writing process" (p. 7). It also means "using the stage process model—prewriting, writing, sharing/responding, revising, editing, and evaluating—as a teaching tool to facilitate student writing" (D'Aoust, 1987, p. 7). Thus, the aim of the process approach to writing is to help students think of themselves as authors so that they engage in the same processes in which mature authors engage (Calkins, 1986; Graves, 1983b; Moffett, 1968; Moffett & Wagner, 1983; Murray, 1980, 1982).

To help students become authors, teachers are urged to arrange classroom activities so that students are writing authentic texts, for varied audiences and genuine purposes. Since the writing purposes need to be genuine, an emphasis is placed on personal involvement, generating one's own topics, responding to and receiving responses from one's peers (Calkins, 1986; Graves, 1983a, 1983b). Teachers are advised that students need to engage in practices such as prewriting, planning, and revision—practices which Morrow (1989) has noted are neglected in traditional instruction. In addition, teachers are also advised to devote regular blocks of time to writing, to encourage children to draft their ideas before they worry about spelling and grammar, and to help children publish their work (Calkins, 1986; Graves, 1983a, 1983b; Temple, Nathan, Burris, & Temple, 1988). Indeed, teachers are advised to model the writing process themselves (Strickland & Morrow, 1989).

IMPLEMENTATION PROBLEMS

Incomplete understanding of the approach

When educators try to implement a new approach, at least three potential problems may interfere. First, even when teachers appear to be supportive of an approach, they may not actually have a complete understanding of it. The results of a recent study (Dreher, 1990a,b) on the process approach to writing, illustrate this problem.

Thirty-eight preservice teachers read descriptions of several approaches to writing instruction. These preservice teachers were nearing the completion of their teacher education program and had completed a series of courses which reflected the current emphasis on whole language including the process approach to writing. Thus, it was not surprising that all of them rated one approach as the most effective, and all but one declared their intention to use that approach in their classroom. The description read as follows:

> Students discuss ideas with each other and then write about whatever they want. When they have a draft ready, they meet with other students for their reaction. They may also discuss their work with the teacher. Students then revise their work and seek additional reaction from other students.

This approach, which Hillocks (1984, 1986) termed the *natural process mode*, involves students initiating most of the interaction. With its emphasis on free writing for an audience of peers, this approach matches the current process approach to writing (e.g., Calkins, 1986; Graves, 1983b).

But in addition to reacting to general descriptions of writing approaches, these preservice teachers also reacted to specific writing practices in two ways. First, they rated a series of statements that either represented a process approach (e.g., "Students should select most of their own topics") or a non-process approach (e.g., "Young children should learn the basics of how to read before we try to teach them how to write"). Second, they read a description of a writing lesson and wrote comments on this description section by section; this lesson description

clearly violated the spirit of the process approach by omitting such features as prewriting activities.

Although these preservice teachers had overwhelmingly selected the process approach as the one they intended to use, their specific reactions revealed some surprises. For example, the majority of these teachers disagreed with or were unsure about a statement that students need time to discuss their writing plans with each other before they begin a writing task. Moreover, they made very few comments about the lack of prewriting activities in the lesson description. Yet prewriting activities are critically important in the process approach. Further, textbooks which address the use of the process approach with young children (e.g., Morrow, 1989; Temple et al., 1988) maintain that prewriting activities are very appropriate for preschool and kindergarten children, while other aspects of the process approach such as editing and revising may be too challenging.

Other specific responses by these preservice teachers also differed from the process approach. For example, half were unsure about or disagreed with the use of writing samples to evaluate students' progress. Moreover, their reactions to the lesson suggested that they did not understand certain aspects of the process approach. Thus, one source of difficulty in implementing a new program is that even when teachers appear to be supportive of an approach, they may not fully understand it.

Rejection of the approach

Although the preservice teachers appeared to support the process approach, we can infer that they will need help implementing it. A second problem is that often teachers do not support an approach which is to be implemented. Another research example illustrates this point.

Nineteen inservice teachers at a K-3 school worked with a principal who was a proponent of the process approach to writing and who had arranged inservice workshops so that the teachers could learn the approach (Dreher, 1990b). After the workshops and after they had had time to implement the approach, these teachers responded to the same materials as did the preservice teachers whose responses were just discussed.

When the teachers rated the effectiveness of descriptions of approaches to writing instruction, two-thirds of them rated the process approach as effective. But they also rated the following approach to writing as being just as effective:

> The teacher explains what makes a particular kind of writing good. The teacher uses models to illustrate that type of writing. The teacher then gives students a writing assignment. When students have finished, the teacher gives feedback on their work.

Hillocks (1984, 1986) labeled such an approach *presentational*. In contrast to the process approach, the presentational approach is characterized by teacher-initiated interaction.

When these teachers were asked to rate the feasibility of each approach in the classroom, 79 percent rated the presentational approach as easy or very easy to implement, but only 37 percent considered the process approach to be easy to

implement. When they were asked to indicate which approach or approaches they used in their classrooms, just seven of the teachers selected the process approach (and three of those teachers said they also used the presentational approach). Instead, a majority preferred the presentational approach. Thus, despite the inservice workshops, only one-third of these teachers thought the approach was feasible in the classroom—the same number who said they used the approach.

Thus, these experienced teachers believed the process approach is likely to be effective. But as experienced teachers, they already had preferred ways of teaching, which they also believed were effective. Instead the inservice grew out of the principal's views. Consequently, most of the teachers rejected the new approach. Since the inservice training did not convince them it was feasible, the likelihood of change became even smaller.

External constraints

Even if teachers support an instructional change and have complete information on how to implement it, they may still face external obstacles. They may not see how a process approach is possible within the current expectations and realities of school such as mandated basal reader programs, accountability, emphasis on standardized test scores, large classes, and equally challenging ideas on how to teach other content areas. In other words, teachers who would like to implement the process approach may not believe it is possible to engage in practices that are currently recommended. Often mixed signals are given by supervisors. For example, a teacher involved in the implementation of the writing workshop concept in her school reported that both she and her students were confused by instructions to accept invented spelling only during the writing workshop portion of the day.

Another difficulty is that even if teachers are shown how to implement something new within the context of existing demands, they may experience guilt about whether it is appropriate. A study on reading instruction by Duffy, Roehler, and Putman (1987) illustrates this point. Teachers were trained to make their own instructional decisions instead of following the plans in the basal reader manual. The teachers were able to produce better reading achievement for their low reading groups than were teachers who taught control groups according to the manual. Of particular interest is that the teachers who had received the training were able to accomplish this improvement in their students' reading performance even with a mandated basal reader series; what they learned to do was to reorganize, modify, or replace the packaged lessons according to their own instructional purposes.

Although the teachers in the Duffy, Roehler, and Putman study could successfully make decisions that benefitted students, these teachers found it hard to carry out these activities. Apparently they were under a good deal of stress because they believed they really should be following what the "experts" told them to do in the manuals. Although there is clear evidence that reading programs are not perfect, the teachers felt it was inappropriate to deviate from what they saw as prescribed lessons.

These results suggest that teachers need support both in handling the constraints of the educational system and in believing that it is appropriate to take such action. Such support is especially important in the current educational climate especially

when "teacher as manager" is often the expectation rather than "teacher as instructional decision maker" (see Dreher & Singer, 1989).

RECOMMENDATIONS

The points above can be combined with the literature on implementing change in classrooms to produce some recommendations about implementing the process approach to writing.

(1) Evaluate the match between the approach and teachers' understanding of it. It is not safe to assume as Temple et al. (1988) have claimed that "the process approach to teaching writing is by now, if not universally practiced, at least familiar to teachers throughout the English-speaking world" (p. xi). Although all but one of the preservice teachers discussed earlier declared their support for the process approach to writing, certain aspects of the approach did not appear to be well understood.

Thus, in implementing change, it may be helpful to identify areas of mismatch between teachers' beliefs and the process approach. A questionnaire addressing key concepts may be useful. But it may be particularly revealing to have teachers react to various types of sample lessons and to use their reactions to revise instruction. Critiquing videotapes of actual classroom writing experiences would also be useful in ensuring that teachers understand the principles of the process approach. The next recommendation is related, but extends teachers' understanding to practical application.

(2) Don't skimp on inservice education. Singer and Donlan (1989) have pointed out that in implementing a new reading program, schools often take shortcuts. For instance, they may send "teachers to observe an outstanding reading program at another school for a day or two, bring back the ideas, and try to install the same program in their own school—without going through the process of staff and program development followed by the outstanding school" (p. 628).

Similarly, Joyce and Showers (1980) reviewed the research on inservice training and concluded that most inservice programs do not go far enough to result in change in teacher behavior. They concluded that typical training stops short of the application and problem solving level; but without this level, training is typically not transferred to the classroom. In addition to presenting the theory, Joyce and Showers recommended that all inservice training include demonstrations, practice in classroom settings, feedback on performance, and in-classroom coaching.

Joyce and Showers' recommendations may solve some of the implementation problems faced by teacher educators who wish to promote the process approach to writing. For example, many of the inservice teachers discussed above were experienced in other ways of teaching; they saw their methods as effective and easy to implement. Although the workshops they participated in gave them enough knowledge to rate the process approach as likely to be effective, they still rejected it because they did not believe the approach to be feasible. Inserving training which involves practice in classroom settings and in-classroom coaching would be likely to help such teachers overcome their doubts about feasibility.

(3) Initiate change from the bottom up rather than the top down. The inservice teachers discussed above were not involved in the decision to have training on the

process approach. In contrast, Bean and Wilson (1981) have argued that instructional change is more likely to occur if a resource teacher, or any other teacher educator, can make arrangements so that the teachers identify problems and propose their own solutions. Similarly, Singer and Donlan (1989) have detailed how to establish a schoolwide committee which can identify the specific needs of the school and help give the entire faculty a sense of involvement in instructional change. They also note that it may not be possible to reach an entire faculty at the same time. In such a case, change can be implemented by starting with those who want to learn a new approach; their success should help spread the impetus for change throughout a school.

In sum, just like any other instructional innovation, the process approach to writing is subject to problems in implementation. Although a new approach may seem sensible and straightforward to its proponents, it is still subject to misunderstandings. Altwerger, Edelsky, and Flores (1987), for example, have catalogued a whole series of misunderstandings of the whole language concept. They also noted that some innovations have died because educators adopted the *label*, but not the *substance*. To keep the process approach to writing from suffering the same fate, teachers who are to implement it need to understand the substance. Good inservice education models need to be followed, and teachers need to be assisted in dealing with external constraints which compound implementation efforts.

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Computer Peer Mentoring with Reading Disabled Students

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Traditionally, peer tutoring has been one-sided with the disabled student on the receiving end of the instruction (Haisley, Tell, & Andrews, 1981; Lazerson, Foster, Brown, & Hummel, 1988). Some researchers have experimented with cross-age tutoring. Reading disabled or learning disabled students tutor younger learning disabled students. The research has indicated that this has been a more effective approach than students being instructed solely by the resource teacher or by "regular education" students (Chiang, Thorpe & Darch, 1980; Salend & Nowak, 1988; Scruggs & Osguthorpe, 1986).

Current research indicates that computers can be an extremely useful instructional tool for disabled readers (Larson & Roberts, 1986). In research conducted by Friedman & Kephart (1989), a pilot project was developed with learning disabled students receiving all of their remedial instruction and regular class instruction in a computer lab with the rest of the students. Computer software was selected that was congruent with the class curriculum. Chapter I students, learning disabled students and those students identified as needing extra assistance were scheduled into a computer lab to receive direct instruction from the resource teacher while other students were using the computer lab for their class assignments. The activities were basically one-to-one with the student, teacher and computer interacting with each other.

Based on the findings of earlier research, classroom action research was initiated in a special education resource classroom with 22 elementary students. Students' strengths and weaknesses were already identified on their Individualized Education Plan (IEP). Then the resource teacher identified which computer programs were appropriate for students. Resource students spent time one-to-one with the resource teacher to learn each of their identified computer programs. These resource students became tutors. They were instructed in the proper care of the computer and software disks. Mock tutoring sessions were scheduled with the resource students receiving training in motivational strategies and behavior management techniques. They were instructed to be positive and patient and were given a hierarchy of steps to take if their tutees were not successful in the tutoring session (ie, repeat request, model correct behavior, warn, escort to classroom and notify teacher).

Resource students gained considerable expertise with the computer programs. In

addition, they were capable and reliable tutors. Scott, a third grader, became proficient at word processing with *FrEd Write* and was able to help younger students write reports on the computer. Tom, a second grader, individually tutored every student in his first grade classroom with *Fun from A-Z, Speedway Math, Arithmetic Critters,* and *Phonics Blends* (all MECC programs). Aaron, a fourth-grader, used fifteen minutes of resource time per day to teach Christina, a third grader, how to run a data base. Then Christina taught the rest of the students in her third grade classroom. Nate, a sixth-grader, taught three sections of fourth graders, three at a time, the MECC program *Oregon Trail*.

Schedules were arranged around the resource student's time in resource room. Fifteen minute segments to learn the software programs were arranged for the third grade students. Fifteen to 30 minute segments were scheduled for *Oregon Trail* for the initial instruction. Then students signed up in groups of three to use the computer to complete the *Oregon Trail* simulation during their breaks and before or after school. Several tutors volunteered to serve as assistants to the scheduled students so that there there was always someone available to help.

In addition to teaching the computer software programs to younger students, the resource students also served as computer consultants. As new programs arrived from the media center, the computer tutors previewed and rated the software. They became the computer experts in our building.

Initially, 10 fourth grade and 10 fifth grade students were matched with first and second graders in two classrooms. The project was so successful that the teachers with the other two sections of first and second graders wanted computer tutors as well. Currently, 15 tutors are responsible for 90 first and second graders. Computer tutors maintain classroom lists and tutor one to two students one-on-one each class period they are in the resource room. Computer sessions are 15 to 30 minutes long depending on the student's schedule.

The benefits of the program were many. First, the resource students benefitted by reinforcing their own skills. Scott learned the keyboard and word attack skills by teaching them to other students. Nate practiced his reading, math and problem-solving skills each day by teaching *Oregon Trail*. Second, self esteem was heightened because these students became the computer experts. Younger students talked with them in the hallway and teachers stopped them to ask them about a program, to reschedule a student, or to preview a piece of software.

Third, regular education students became more familiar with the computer. Third and fourth graders appeared to be much less threatened with their sixth grade computer teachers rather than an adult. Students were not intimidated by their young computer teachers who were patient and willing to show them the same procedures over and over.

Another unexpected advantage was that the computers were always supervised and not sitting in the hallway or sitting in storage or in the back of a room. They were used almost all the time including breaks and before and after school because the resource teacher was scheduled in the room at the same time. The equipment was secure and used all the time.

The only problems encountered with the program were the shortage of computers and the lack of time to teach all students who wanted to learn the programs. Further

plans include teaching all students to use *FrEdwriter*, a MECC public domain word processor program. Teaching other children how to write using the computer will enhance resource students' reading, writing and keyboarding skills as well. The program will also be expanded to include different aged students as tutees and to include a larger selection of software programs.

SUGGESTIONS FOR GETTING STARTED

To implement a computer peer mentoring program, you need a computer for the resource classroom on a daily basis. Loans can generally be arranged from the school, the Area Education Agency or from businesses involved in the partners in education. Next, instruct students in the care of the computer and software. Each student should learn how to handle and load disks properly, how to load and run the printer, and how to format and copy disks. Each student can then sample computer software to determine which programs he/she can use effectively for teaching. There is a large collection of public domain software available from MECC through the Area education agencies, special education clearinghouses, or local libraries. Students can preview the disks and decide on which disks to add to a permanent collection. These public domain software programs are very affordable and can be generally be purchased for less than five dollars for the disk and documentation.

After previewing and borrowing or purchasing the programs, the students can prepare a list of tutors and software. Regular classroom teachers can choose appropriate software programs to match their current curriculum content.

Students can also serve as teacher consultants. For example, students can be taught teacher utility programs such as *Labels, Letters and Lists* or *Grade Manager* and then teach the teachers how to run the programs or run the programs for the specific tasks requested.

Positive benefits for the special education students in this project included improved attitude, an almost zero absentee record, enhanced status with teachers and other students and steadily improving scores in reading and math. The approach might be equally successful for other special needs populations such as Chapter 1 or upper grade special education students. The primary ingredients are the computer, the inexpensive MECC programs, and the willing students to serve as tutors and tutees.

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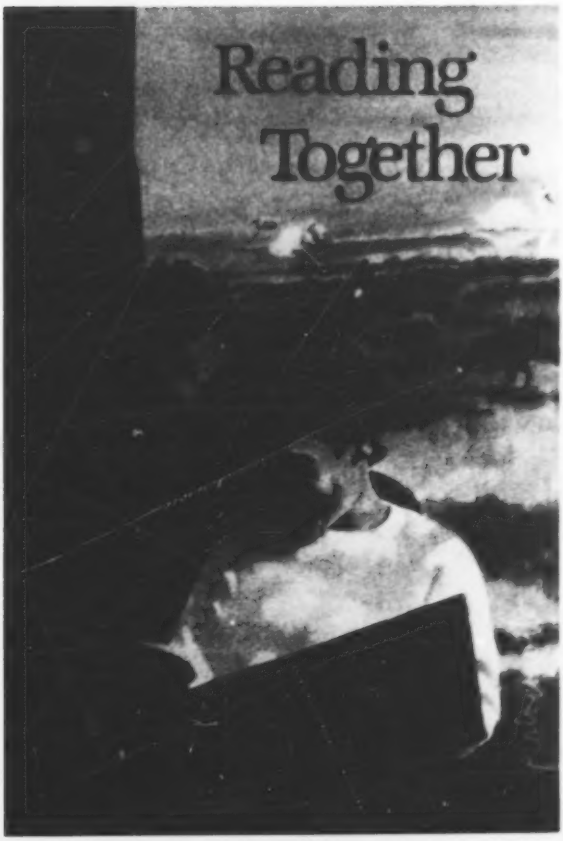

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Captioned Video Technology and Television-Based Reading Instruction

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In the last decade there has been a new focus upon innovative uses of technology to develop the reading skills of students experiencing difficulty in learning to read (Koskinen, Wilson, Gambrell & Jensema, 1987; Mason, Blanchard & Daniel, 1987; Reinking, 1988). One of the most intriguing of these innovations is the closed captioning of television programs. Closed captions, similar to subtitles on foreign films, can be seen only on televisions equipped with a special telecaption decoder. More than 250 hours of weekly television shows and all of the prime-time programs on the major networks currently have closed captions which enabled viewers to read the dialogue of a program. These captions are a new source of reading material. They present readers with printed words in a motivating medium where the audio and video context help them understand words they might not already know.

While closed-captioned television was originally developed to help hearing-impaired viewers enjoy the benefits of television, it appears that captioned television also can be used to help hearing people who are less proficient readers. Research with regular TV programs indicates that reading achievement has been improved when instruction has been based on popular TV programs (Ashley, 1982; Szabo & Lamiel-Landy, 1981). More recent research suggests that television with captions has considerable potential in the development of reading vocabulary and comprehension of school-age remedial readers (Adler, 1985; Koskinen, Wilson, Gambrell & Jensema, 1986). Captions have also improved the comprehension skills of English as a Second Language students (Markham, 1989; Neuman & Koskinen, 1991; Price, 1983), and there are indications of enhanced vocabulary skills with functionally illiterate adults (Bean & Wilson, 1989). It appears from these studies on captioning that the audio from television does not interfere with the processing of captions. In fact, these studies support the theoretical notion that simultaneous processing enhances learning.

Since there is support in the literature for the use of captioned television mate-

rials for reading instruction, but limited systematic research on its in-school use, a two-phase training study was designed to examine teachers' use of captioned video materials in classroom reading instruction. This study was part of a larger U.S. Department of Education research grant on captioning and reading which found that students benefited from captioned video reading lessons when those lessons were taught by trained researchers (Koskinen et al., 1987). Phase 1 of the present study examined teachers' use of model captioned video reading lessons with learning disabled students. The second phase of the study investigated teachers' use of their own reading lessons based upon captioned video materials.

METHOD

Subjects

Seven teachers and their learning disabled students who were reading below grade level served as subjects in this study. The 45 participating students ranged in age from 8 to 13, with reading levels from first to fourth grade. All participants were from three schools in a large Maryland public school system.

Materials

Video Packages. Fourteen video packages were assembled for use in this study. Each package consisted of a captioned TV program, a printed text of the program's captions (script) for the teacher, and multiple copies of these printed scripts for use by the students. In Phase 1 of this study, four TV programs, from three different program genres (science, cartoon, and situation comedies), were selected from those that had been successfully used in previous research studies (Koskinen, Wilson, & Jensema, 1985; Koskinen, Wilson, & Jensema, 1986). They included two science segments from *3-2-1 Contact*, the cartoon, *Scrappy Puppy*, and the situation comedy *Diff'rent Strokes*. The programs varied in length from a two-minute program on termites to a complete 22-minute situation comedy. In Phase 2, 10 TV programs were available for use by teachers. These included three science programs, three cartoons, two situation comedies, as well as two program types that were different from those available in Phase 1: *Sesame Street*, a children's program; and *Ripley's Believe It or Not*, a general information program.

Model Lessons. A set of eight, 30-minute model reading lessons, two per video, were developed for use in Phase 1 (see Appendix). These lessons were created so teachers would have the experience of teaching a variety of reading skills with a range of captioned videos. Each lesson focused on at least one of the following skills: vocabulary development, locating information, character analysis, and prediction. These lessons were designed to include the following parts: a) activation of prior knowledge, b) viewing at least a portion of a captioned TV program (which included reading captions on the video), c) skill instruction related to the video, and d) use of the paper script of captions (which involved reading words on a printed page).

Teacher Training Materials. Procedures for the training sessions were similar to those used in a previous study (Koskinen, Wilson, & Jensema, 1986), but were adapted for use with teachers of learning disabled students. Training materials in

Phase 1 focused on learning about teaching reading with captioned videos, use of the video equipment, and orientation to using model captioned video reading lessons. The teacher training for Phase 2 focused on preparing teachers to create their own reading lessons using video materials. The training included guidance in selecting and previewing videos, determining appropriate reading skills, and writing a lesson plan. To assure consistency in teacher training across the three schools, a script was developed for the two training sessions in each phase and all teacher training was conducted by the first author.

Teacher Evaluation Forms. Two teacher evaluation forms were used in each phase of this study. One form was used by teachers to evaluate each of their eight lessons in Phases 1 and 2. At the end of both phases, teachers completed a final questionnaire evaluating the use of captioned materials in general. The major focus of these evaluations was on lesson content and teachers' perception of student interest and response accuracy.

Observer Evaluation Forms. To explore teachers' use of model captioned video lessons, teachers in Phase 1 were observed three times. Forms for the observers were developed for the teachers' second, fifth, and eighth lessons. The three forms followed a similar structure, noting the lesson objective, the elements of the lesson, teacher use of equipment, as well as teacher and student response to the lesson. Interrater reliability among the four experienced observers who rated the lessons in this study ranged from 92% to 100% on the various parts of the lessons.

In Phase 2 of this study, teachers were observed twice while they were teaching their own captioned TV reading lessons. The observation forms related to the lesson objective, reading activities, and the way the video, captions, and paper script of captions were used.

Student Questionnaire. A four-item questionnaire was developed to assess student interest in captioned TV reading lessons. Students were asked questions related to how they liked viewing captioned TV and whether it helped them learn to read.

Procedures

Phase 1. The teachers in Phase 1 of this study were asked to use a sequenced set of eight model captioned TV lessons as part of their regular reading program. To enable them to do this, teachers received a two-hour training session on using captioned TV in the teaching of reading. This session provided a rationale for using captioned TV, discussed ways to use video segments in teaching reading, and modeled an actual lesson and use of the video equipment. Teachers also participated in a 30-minute follow-up session when they were approximately half-way through their set of lessons. This session provided teachers with an opportunity to ask questions and discuss the benefits and problems related to using captioned TV reading lessons.

Teachers taught the eight model reading lessons over a five-week period to a group of learning disabled students in their classrooms. They used the lessons in a specified order and were asked to teach the pair of lessons that related to a specific TV program within one week. Teachers were asked to follow the general format of the lesson if possible; however, they were encouraged to adapt the plan if it was not

appropriate for their students. Teachers evaluated each of their lessons after it was taught and then completed a general evaluation after the last lesson.

To assess teacher use of model lessons, the teachers were observed three times teaching a captioned TV lesson. A total of 21 teacher lessons were evaluated. Observers, who were experienced teachers, evaluated the teachers' second, fifth, and eighth lessons. These evaluations focused on both the content of specific lessons as well as student interest and response accuracy.

Phase 2. During Phase 2 of the study, teachers were asked to develop and teach eight captioned TV reading lessons as part of their regular reading program. These lessons were to be approximately 30-minutes in length and focus on reading skills that were appropriate for their learning disabled students. Teachers were provided with ten complete video programs which were similar to those they had previously used in Phase 1. They were encouraged to use any of the segments from the available TV programs, but were asked not to use a program segment more than four times. This was requested so the teachers would have the experience of selecting and using more than one segment.

To provide assistance in lesson development in Phase 2, teachers participated in an initial 90-minute training session and then in a 30-minute follow-up session. During the initial session, teachers received training in creating their own TV reading lesson, building upon the models they had previously found effective in Phase 1. Training focused on selecting high interest programs, determining appropriate reading skills, and writing a lesson plan using the format of the model lessons. A follow-up session was conducted for teachers half-way through Phase 2. It provided a forum for sharing ideas, asking questions, and discussing the benefits and concerns related to using captioned TV.

Teachers taught the eight lessons they created over a five-week period to the same students who participated in Phase 1. Teachers evaluated each of their lessons after it was taught, and completed a general evaluation after the last session. In addition, they asked students to evaluate captioned TV by completing a short questionnaire which was read to them.

To assess teachers' use of their own captioned TV reading lessons, teachers were observed and evaluated twice, during either the second, fifth or eighth lesson. A total of 14 lessons were evaluated. The experienced teachers who were observers in Phase 1, also served as observers in Phase 2.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Descriptive procedures were used to analyze data from the following sources: teachers' self-evaluations, independent observations of teachers, and student evaluations.

Teacher's Self-evaluations. Teachers evaluated each of the eight lessons in both phases of the study and also completed a general evaluation form after each phase. The means across individual lessons are presented in Table 1. The five-point Likert scale that was used for the first four questions ranged from 1 = "Not at All" to 5 = "All of the Time." Question 5 and 6 had points with a range from 1 = "Poor" to 5 = "Excellent." Teachers reported considerable satisfaction with the television-based reading lessons, noting that they were able to follow the lesson plans,

Table 1 Teachers' Evaluation of Individual Lessons

	Overall Average Means Across Lessons	
	Phase 1	Phase 2
1. Followed Lesson Plan	3.91	4.49
2. Comfortable with Equipment	4.24	4.40
3. Students on Task	4.18	4.46
4. Students Responded Accurately	4.24	4.32
5. Student Interest	4.35	4.28
6. Overall Evaluation of Lesson	3.81	3.90

were comfortable with the equipment, and that student interest and response accuracy were very high.

Similar positive responses were found in general evaluations that were completed after each phase. Using a five-point Likert scale (1 = Poor, 2 = Fair, 3 = Good, 4 = Very Good, 5 = Excellent), the teachers' general reactions to captioned TV ranged from "very good" to "excellent" in Phase 1 (M = 4.29), and from "good" to "excellent" in Phase 2 (M = 4.33). In addition, the teachers' rating of student motivation ranged from "very good" to "excellent" in Phase 1 (M = 4.57) and Phase 2 (M = 4.71). The teachers' ratings of the quality of the tapes for instruction ranged from "good" to "excellent" (M = 4.43) in Phase 1, and from "very good" to "excellent" in Phase 2 (M = 4.14). The ratings for the quality of student learning ranged from "fair" to "excellent" in Phase 1 (M = 3.57) and were considerably higher in Phase 2 (M = 4.33) with a range from "good" to "excellent."

The teachers were also asked to indicate if captioned TV was suitable for the development of specific reading skills. After Phase 2, all seven teachers reported that captioned TV was well suited to the development of vocabulary skills and six reported that it was suitable for developing prediction skills. These teachers also suggested a variety of other skills for which captioned video is well suited, such as character analysis and sequencing.

All seven teachers reported that even if they were not involved in another research project, they would probably use captioned TV in their classrooms on the average of once or twice a week. A majority found the scripts to be useful in the lessons. It is interesting to note that after the first phase of the study, two of the seven teachers reported having some difficulty with the equipment. However, after the eight sessions conducted for Phase 2, none of the teachers reported experiencing difficulty with the TV or VCR.

Observer Evaluations. Each teacher's lessons were observed by trained researchers five times during the ten-week study; three times in Phase 1 and twice during Phase 2. A total of 35 lessons were observed.

One part of the observation involved the use of a five-point Likert scale for the evaluation of teacher and student behavior. Means for these observations are pre-

Table 2 Observers' Evaluations of Teachers' Lessons

	Overall Average Means Across Lessons	
	Phase 1	Phase 2
1. Followed (Model) Lesson Plan	4.19	—
2. Used Equipment Easily	4.45	4.36
3. Comfort with Lesson	4.36	4.93
4. Students Responded Accurately	4.00	3.79
5. Students on Task	4.09	4.29
6. Overall Lesson Evaluation	4.03	4.07
7. Student Interest	4.22	4.07

sented in Table 2. Questions 1-5 had points on the scale that ranged from 1 = "No" to 5 = "Always", while questions 6 and 7 used a scale with points ranging from 1 = "poor" to 5 = "excellent." The ratings of the observers are similar to the teachers' self-evaluations, indicating a high degree of satisfaction with the teachers' lessons.

In Phase 2, observers used a checklist to record teacher and student behavior and to note the time spent on various lesson components. The most frequently occurring objectives for the teachers' captioned television lessons were vocabulary and prediction. The specific lesson components that were rated, and the percentage of time teachers were observed using the lesson components in their video reading lessons are as follows: Lesson objectives were related to the development of reading skills (100%); there was a match between the teacher's stated objective and the observed lesson (100%); reading activities were used to develop the objective (100%); video captions were used in the lesson to develop reading skills (57%); students used the paper scripts of captions for reading activities (79%); a purpose was set for viewing the captioned segment (85%); discussion followed the purposes set for viewing the captioned segment (92%). These data indicate that teachers were able to develop and teach well-formed, purposeful captioned TV reading lessons. It is worth noting that reading activities were used to develop lesson objectives in all of the observed lessons, and, in particular, direct use of the video captions on the TV screen was observed more than half of the time. The use of captions appearing on the video screen for developing reading objectives is noteworthy given that this was not specified as a necessary component of a lesson with video materials.

In Phase 2, the average lesson was approximately 32 minutes long and students spent an average of 8.5 minutes viewing captioned television during each lesson. One-half of the teachers had students rewatch portions of the video segment as part of the reading lesson. Students spent approximately 2.5 minutes engaged in this rewatching activity.

Student Evaluations. The 45 students in the classrooms of the 7 participating teachers evaluated captioned television activities on a five-point Likert scale (1 = Not at All, 2 = Very Little of the Time, 3 = Some of the Time, 4 = Most of the

Time, 5 = All of the Time). Student responses to the four questions are as follows: They liked watching captioned TV programs (M = 4.73); they felt that watching captioned TV helped them learn new words (M = 4.40); they found that watching captioned TV made script reading easier (M = 4.09); and they would like to learn with captioned TV again in school (M = 4.69).

Results from this study revealed that teachers with a minimum of training could effectively use prepared model captioned video lessons. More importantly, in Phase 2, teachers developed and implemented their own well-structured captioned vocabulary and comprehension video lessons. In addition, teachers and students were enthusiastic about the use of video materials in the teaching of a variety of reading skills. Objective evaluations by trained observers indicated the high quality of teacher-designed lessons and the equally high level of student motivation and on-task behavior.

Previous studies (Adler, 1985; Koskinen et al., 1986; Markham, 1989) have documented the instructional benefits of using captioned video. The findings of the present study indicate that classroom teachers can effectively use model captioned video lessons and can develop and implement their own teacher prepared captioned video lessons. This research suggests that captioned video materials provide a promising source of highly motivating text for teachers to use in reading instruction. In light of the positive findings of this study, additional research should be conducted to explore the potential use of captioned video materials for literacy instruction over an extended period of time and with different populations of readers.

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APPENDIX

SAMPLE MODEL LESSON
"Termite Colonies"

Objective: Vocabulary Development

1. *Building Background/Purpose Setting*
   PUT WORDS **"termite"** AND **"Alate termite colonies"** ON THE BOARD OR ON TAG BOARD SO STUDENTS CAN SEE THEM.

   Tell students that they will watch a *3-2-1 Contact* program about how new termite colonies are built (point to word **"termite"**). Tell them that they will learn about the inside and outside of **Alate termite colonies** (point to words). Build background information about the program by asking about termites, such as saying, "Tell me what you know about how insects such as the ant, termite, and bee build their colonies." (Accept responses. You may want to bring out that these insects have homes with many rooms or chambers with some having tunnels between rooms.)

   Provide a short introduction to the program and set a purpose for viewing. For example, you might say, "In this short captioned program that we are going to watch, each young termite king finds a young termite queen so that they can start their own termite colony. These termites are called Alates. They must leave their home to build a new termite colony. Watch this program carefully and read the captions as you watch so you can describe the inside and outside of a termite colony."

2. *Program Viewing*
   BEGIN THE 2 MINUTE 3-2-1 CONTACT #236 "TERMITE" SEGMENT (see script

pp. 2-4) AT "Once a year in Africa . . ." (p. 2) AND END AFTER ". . . they have for 200 million years." (p. 4)

REWIND TAPE TO BEGINNING OF THE TERMITE SEGMENT

3. *Follow up on Purposes*

Ask students about the purposes you set, such as "Tell me what you learned about the inside and outside of an Alate termite colony."

(Accept student responses—You may want to mention that there are many types of termites—kings, queens, workers, and soldiers, and they have different jobs—the queen lays the eggs and the workers bring in the food.)

4. *Finding Words on the Video Tape*

Select five words that are visually portrayed in the video, such as:

mound	colonies	build
nurseries	chamber	soldiers
mushrooms	tunnels	skyscrapers
garden	termites	

Tell students they are going to look for interesting words in the program. For example you could say,

"Here's the word **mound**" (write the word on the board or put it on tag board so students can see it.)

"Let's look for the word **mound** on the screen. See if you can figure out what the word **mound** means. Raise your hand when you see the word **mound.**"

BEGIN TAPE AT THE BEGINNING OF THE SEGMENT (When students find the word, stop the tape at the end of the sentence in which the word appears.)

"What does that word **mound** mean here?"

Repeat the above vocabulary procedure about four more times with words you have selected that are portrayed visually in the program. Be sure to list words on the board in the order they appear in the video tape.

5. *Choice of Favorite Part*

To provide closure for this lesson, ask students what parts of the program they liked best and why. After students have had an opportunity to tell a favorite part, tell them that next time they do TV reading they'll get to see some of those favorite parts again.

(Source: Koskinen, P. S. & Wilson, R. M. (1987). *Have you read any good TV lately?* Falls Church, VA: National Captioning Institute, Inc.)

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The Teacher as a Writing Model

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REFLECTIONS ON TEACHERS' WRITING AS THEIR STUDENTS WRITE

Anne Goes First (Anne Clark from the Netherlands)

I had been asked by Jim Pirkle, my colleague and our regional language arts coordinator, to observe Writers' Workshop in operation in several elementary classrooms at one of our neighborhood schools. As a practicing classroom teacher, active and interested in process writing, I looked forward to seeing teachers at another school in action. Not entirely comfortable with the role of "expert" in which I had been placed, I saw myself more as a teacher a little more experienced with process writing than most. I was hoping to learn something myself.

On one of my school visits I found myself in a first grade classroom. I sat, watched and listened. Good warm-up: The teacher used the poem, "Mice" by Rose Fyleman. In this mini-lesson she talked about the images in the poem. Then the teacher and students discussed their ideas for that day's writing. After a few moments of movement and quiet chatter, everyone including the teacher settled down to write. As a class teacher who writes every day with my class, I know the value of my daily writing. I watched this teacher. Yes, she was writing too. But something was wrong. She sat at her desk in a back corner of the room while she wrote. The students all faced away from her. She was removed from the rest of the class. She sat surrounded by books, papers, and a box that looked like a science kit. She could easily have been grading papers or working on lesson plans.

I was confused. Clearly, this teacher knew that she was supposed to write when the children wrote. But did she know why? By separating herself from the class while she wrote, she was inviting behavioral problems, but more importantly, she was missing valuable opportunities for incidental instruction and especially for modeling what she was trying to teach.

I had to wonder—did this teacher understand why she should be writing when the students wrote?

Jim's Turn (Jim Pirkle from England)

As a colleague of Anne Clark, and in my job as language arts/reading coordinator for forty-four American schools in England, Belgium, The Netherlands, Ice-

land, New Foundland, Cuba and Bermuda, I try to spread the "good word" about process writing by giving inservice workshops at our schools. I often return to schools for follow-up visits to observe, help, and support the teachers there. I had asked Anne, a classroom teacher who was experienced in process writing to come along to one school with me.

When I return to observe and support classroom teachers, I look for teachers who write alongside the students. I am usually intrigued by the wandlike magic that occurs when the teacher sits down to write. In this setting, students respond almost reverently to the writing act. There is an immediate calm among students around the room, a sense of solid purpose, and a host of nonverbal cues tell everyone that this is a serious, valued, and respected act.

Yet there are teachers who choose not to write with their students. And there are teachers who simply go through the motions because they know it is expected that they write. Like Anne, I wonder, "Do these teachers understand why they should be writing as the students write?"

We tossed this question back and forth for a while. Perhaps we had uncovered a gap in these teachers' understanding that hampered their effectiveness. Maybe they really do not understand why they need to write with the students. Then other questions began to creep into our conversation:

—Do most teachers realize and appreciate their power as a general role model in the classroom?

—How can teachers maximize the positive effect of the influence of this modeling as it affects their students' literacy attitudes and behaviors?

—What role can the teacher play in establishing a cooperative atmosphere in the classroom which supports and encourages young authors?

—What writing skills and behaviors can be successfully modeled?

—And finally, from a practical viewpoint, *how* do teachers in the classroom write with the students?

Together, we talked, thought, wrote, and talked and thought and wrote some more. Together, we worked to answer these questions. We wanted to provide some support to teachers who wish to maximize their effect as a model in the classroom. The purposes of this article are, then:

—to describe the general role of the teacher as a model in the classroom;

—to identify process writing skills, attitudes and behaviors that can be modeled successfully;

—to provide examples of how one effectively can model these skills, attitudes, and behaviors in the classroom.

THE TEACHER AS A MODEL

Students are constantly growing, developing, and discovering. In addition, they are also observing and noticing the important adults around them. If we want students to be writers and see that writing is important, then they must see us as writers, see us writing and know that we believe that writing is valuable and important.

Teachers have a significant effect on the lives of many students. By the nature of

their position as teacher, like it or not, they have been knighted with substantial influence over the students they teach. They know how to encourage the behaviors they find positive and acceptable in students, and they know how to ignore those they want to discourage. Their influence as a model in the classroom is indeed a powerful one.

On an affective level, a teacher provides the model of a caring, responsive person, and on a cognitive level—in a writing classroom—the teacher who writes with the students is using the most powerful instructional tool—modeling. On both cognitive and affective levels, the behaviors teachers model speak louder to their students than any lesson or advice they may give them. Most students will imitate nearly any adult behavior, as many an embarrassed parent will tell you. To his or her advantage, a wise teacher uses this tendency to imitate by purposeful modeling of specific, desirable attitudes and behaviors.

Frank Smith (1988), in discussing membership in the "literacy club," points out the simultaneous impact modeling has for students' learning and the teacher's role as an important model. He notes that students learn vicariously from what others around them do. They learn by participating alongside the teacher in the literate activity of writing. As such, the teacher and child are bona fide charter members of the literacy club. When teachers are thus involved in writing with the students, they can truly be said to be facilitating and promoting the admission of students into the literacy club.

Writing With the Students

In a classroom where writing is taught as a process, the teacher is one of the writers in the class. When the students write, the teacher writes with them. When the students discuss plans and ideas for their writing, the teacher joins in the discussion. Like the other writers in the class, the teacher shares his or her writing in the Authors' Chair. The teacher seeks help and advice from the other members of the classroom's community of writers. Like every other writer in the class, the teacher works to shape and mold the words to match his or her intended meaning. In every sense, the teacher is simply one of the many writers in this community of writers.

The teacher who takes writing seriously and who spends time writing is encouraging and motivating students to write. The children will simply imitate the teacher's behavior because the teacher is an important adult in their lives. Seeing their teacher write makes them also want to write. When students and adults engage in the same activity together, whether it is writing, cooking, tennis or chess, the activity gains both credibility and dignity in students' eyes. It isn't just "kid's-stuff," if grown-ups do it, and enjoy it, it must be something worth doing.

Moreover, wise teachers use this influence to their instructional advantage. If teachers want to encourage a particular behavior in students, like conferencing with another writer or listing alternate titles, they can demonstrate that behavior themselves. A teacher can do it almost incidentally, not as the teacher, but as a fellow writer, engaged in the business of writing. He or she might model to the whole class, a small group of students, or even to one student in particular.

A positive attitude towards writing is also worth modeling for students. As the

daily Writers' Workshop begins, an enthusiastic teacher might say, "I can't wait to start writing this morning! I'm working on a piece about visiting my grandparents' farm, and it's really going well." This kind of excitement is contagious. Students will not only become more enthused about their own writing, they'll become more curious and concerned about how the teacher's piece is going.

Specific Modeling Situations

1. "Don't interrupt her now. She's having a hard time."

When you start your writing program, you might want to simply model the act of concentration while writing. Try this: Write intently, ignoring minor noises and distractions in the room. Focus completely on your writing. If a student interrupts you, put up your hand in a policeman's STOP gesture, without shifting your gaze and or speaking. Afterwards, explain to the class that you were working hard and just couldn't interrupt your writing right then. Thank them for respecting your need to write. The students will learn to read your body language and not interrupt when they see you hard at work. One first grade teacher reports that when concentrating on her writing, she overheard one student say to another, "Don't interrupt her now. She's having a hard time." From this, students learn that writing usually requires concentration and focus. Plus, sometimes writing is hard work.

2. "I see you're hard at work, so I'll let you get on with it."

In the same way that you expect students to respect your needs when you write, you must do the same for them. When you come to conference with a student who is deep into his or her writing, don't interrupt. At most, acknowledge that the student is working hard and note that you are not going to disturb him or her any further. Then leave the writer alone. Most students are wonderful at letting you know when they need help or want to share what they've done. Now you are modeling two different behaviors: respecting the concentration of another writer and working hard at writing.

3. "Claire, I'm having trouble with my lead sentence."

Here's a scenario for another example. You are writing with the children. You are stuck and feeling frustrated. You get another piece of paper and begin listing sentences. Turning to a nearby student, you ask for help. "Claire, I'm having trouble with my lead sentence. I just can't seem to find the right sentence to begin my piece. I want it to sound exciting and really "grab" the reader. I've just made a list of a few different ones. Will you listen to them and tell me which you think sounds best?" Then you read the sentences to Claire, (and you can be sure that she won't be the only student listening). Next, listen to what she has to say. Feed her some information if you need to, "Do you think that this one sounds more exciting than that one?" In this scenario, at least three specific behaviors are being modeled: seeking the advice of another writer, listing alternate lead sentences, and finally, it's okay to admit having a problem when you write.

4. "How would it sound if I moved this sentence . . . ?"

You can, of course, model other more "general behaviors" of the writing process such as revision. You are writing with the students. You take out yesterday's writing and begin making changes. You cross out words or phrases, and add bits here and there using arrows, stars, etc., to code your additions. You might talk

quietly to yourself as you do this in a kind of running narrative describing what you are doing: "No, that doesn't sound right there. How would it sound if I moved this sentence . . . ? No, that won't work. I can cross this part out and add more detail here." Students take notice of nearly everything you do. If any student takes particular notice, or asks what you are doing, explain that you are revising your writing so it makes more sense, or is clearer, or simply sounds better. If you feel particularly pedagogical, you might consider pointing out to the student that he or she can also make changes in his or her writing. Make comparisons with any revisions and/or corrections the child already may be making, since he or she may already have been making additions, crossing words out, changing spellings, or correcting story sequences. (Remember that any time a writer makes any change in his or her writing, he or she is revising).

5. "What can I write about?"

You can achieve the broadest effect by combining direct instruction with modeling by first teaching the entire class a mini-lesson about a specific writing skill or technique, and then modeling that skill or technique yourself. For example, your mini-lesson may focus on the concept of characterization. You may discuss predictable behavior for characters the children already know, such as Arnold Lobel's characters, Frog and Toad. You conclude the mini-lesson with a suggestion that students may want to create a new story for Frog and Toad. Then when it is time to write, you join them by writing a new story for Frog and Toad yourself.

6. "I can't remember how to spell that word."

There also will be times when you'll need to direct your modeling to a specific child who may be struggling in a certain area. One example is John, who after many weeks of experience with writers' workshop is still uncomfortable using invented spellings. Try sitting next to John at writing time. As you write, underline or circle a word or two, muttering to yourself, (so John can hear you, of course), "I can't remember how to spell that word. Oh well, close enough." If spelling is an issue for John, you'll quickly get his attention with that remark. You can simply allow him to observe you at work, or you can give John an explanation of what you are doing. Ask him what he does when he wants to write a word that he is unsure how to spell. Help him generate some alternatives for dealing with words he doesn't know how to spell by sounding it out, asking a friend for help, or using the magic line, (e.g. when writing the word "garden", a young child might write "g_____" or "g_____n"). Use this opportunity to remind him that spelling doesn't matter too much in the early stages of writing. Consider telling him that all published writers have editors whose job it is to help with things like spelling.

7. "I'll show you how it's done."

Nearly any mechanical skill such as capitalization, punctuation, run-on sentences, etc., can be modeled. You can encourage risk-taking by modeling a new writing technique or style such as writing poetry or a play. Process skills such as conferencing are also easily modeled for students. Even skills such as choosing a title, deciding on a concluding sentence, or selecting which piece to publish can be successfully modeled.

You'll find that practically any skill or writing behavior is encouraged or reinforced by your own modeling of that behavior. When students see you write, most

of the time they will get your message by what you do without a need for having it announced, broadcasted, highlighted, or underlined. You can be as direct or as indirect as you feel the need. There will be some instances where simply modeling the desired behavior will be enough, yet there will be other times when an explanation may be helpful.

8. "Look what a clever idea Gareth had!"

When you see evidence of your modeling taking effect, be generous with your recognition and praise. Whether your modeling has been direct or subtle, when a student is doing what you hoped for, let him or her know. Along the same line, make use of the students in the class as models for each other. When Gareth adds an index to the back of his information book on trees, that's reason for celebration. Point out to the other writers in the room what a clever idea it was to add an index, and within the next week, you'll find a few more books with an index.

A CONCLUDING THOUGHT

In conclusion, writing with your class everyday is one of your most powerful tools as a teacher of writing. The obvious message is that you believe in writing and value the opportunity for students to develop into effective thinkers and users of language. The implied message is that you value and enjoy writing enough to do it yourself, and the opportunities for modeling specific writing skills and behaviors continue to be unlimited.

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Reading Workshop: A Forum for Learning How to Love Reading

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Second graders listened intently as the teacher, Mrs. K., read John Steptoe's *Mufaro's Beautiful Daughters*. After reading aloud, the teacher questioned, "Why do you think Mr. Steptoe wrote this book?"

DeChanta suggested "to teach us a lesson."

"Manyara was selfish," Luke added.

"Yeah, she made fun of her kind sister," said Monique.

Mrs. K. offered, "So Mr. Steptoe wanted to teach about selfishness. Yesterday, we learned that Gail Gibbons wanted us to learn about the world around us. When authors write, they have a reason for writing their stories."

The children quickly learned a lesson about authors. When these children read, they are thinking about a point of view. They wonder why these authors wrote the book. They understand that authors write from their own experiences just as they do. This knowledge becomes a powerful motivation for reading. They dove into books they chose to read, and during the next 30 minutes, the class was busily engaged in reading in a variety of ways.

The children in this second grade are participants in the reading workshop. They learn to read by constructing their understandings of books they hear about and books they choose on their own. They read and are read to and share their books. This structured part of the reading program has been successful in creating many critical readers. Social interaction is foremost as children share, discuss interpretations, and question each other about what they know. The social atmosphere is critical to children's being free to accept or reject someone's ideas. They are continually evaluating what makes sense to them, and they are free to give responses in a supportive atmosphere. They know they are not alone in the reading task and can always get help from their peers. The reading workshop format contributes to the foundation for literacy. These workshops are set in classrooms where children have many opportunities for reading aloud and hearing stories. Reading workshops are composed of a mini-lesson, READ TIME and conferring, and a SHARING SESSION (Atwell, 1987; Calkins, 1986).

THE STRUCTURE OF THE WORKSHOP

Mini-Lessons

The mini-lessons are short five-minute lessons about how authors write books or about specific strategies children can use to get meaning. Mini-lessons may focus

on activities involving how Tomie DePaola chooses his topics, how Ezra Jack Keats shows a boy growing up, or how Cynthia Rylant uses everyday experiences as material for her books. Specific strategy mini-lessons are how to choose a book, how to read a book when you do not know the words, or how to skip words and figure out meaning from context. Mini-lessons are like seeds that germinate. Sometimes children pick up on an idea but often they do not use a strategy until a later time.

A favorite author of young children is Stephen Kellogg, and his books have been the source of many mini-lessons. One day in Mrs. K.'s class, the children discussed who Pam might be in the dedication of *The Mystery Beast of Ostergeest*. "This book is for our beautiful Pam," said Mrs. K. "Who could that be?" Children speculated on a variety of possibilities from Mr. Kellogg's wife to his pet. Children learned that a dedication is written to someone special in an author's life. Another mini-lesson centered on the dialogue. "What does that bubble say on the first page in *The Mystery Beast of Ostergeest?*" "Why would a king say that?" They laughed at the outrageousness of the king's situation in trying to figure out who the beast was. Soon, children were speculating about reasons characters said what they did. They quickly got the idea that dialogue is characters' speech and that Mr. Kellogg uses bubbles to enclose his dialogue.

But the best mini lessons about Stephen Kellogg came from his reason for writing *The Mystery Beast of Ostergeest*. When asked about these reasons, children generated the following list:

He wanted us to learn about big things.
He wanted us to have a chance.
He wanted us to learn a lesson.
He taught us not to fool around with big animals.
He told us not to touch all parts of an animal.
He let us know you can't tell an animal by touch.
He wanted to make us laugh.

The group decided that Mr. Kellogg wanted to make them laugh. The next day the teacher gathered the group for the mini-lesson, and the children brainstormed ways Stephen Kellogg made them laugh. The teacher listened carefully as they suggested the ways they knew:

"People did unusual things."
"Weird characters were in the story."
"The clown and the characters were funny when they talked."
"There were funny clothes, funny pictures, and funny names."

At the end, the group came to consensus that Mr. Kellogg used a variety of techniques to make people laugh. The teacher concluded the mini-lesson by saying, "Pictures do a lot for a story. Today when you're reading and writing, you may want to use Mr. Kellogg's ways of making people laugh. If you want to choose a funny book, look for pictures of unusual things and funny characters. When you write, you can use these ways to make people laugh." The group adjourned to find the books they wanted to read.

READ TIME and Conferring

After mini-lessons, children have an opportunity to read books of their choice. This is the time to both enjoy wonderful stories and to reflect on the author's craft. During READ TIME, the teacher talks about reading with individual children.

Books are grouped in various categories in baskets. Baskets are organized either around an author or a theme. On this day there were baskets labeled: Stephen Kellogg books, Amelia Bedelia Books, Easy Readers, Dinosaur Books, and Getting Ready for Winter Books. In addition, there was a basket labeled *Our Own Books* (children's authored books) with brightly colored covers and yarn bindings.

Children select books in very interesting ways. Some race to the dinosaur books because they are intrigued by the hard names. Some choose books related to themes in which they're interested. Children of all ability levels may choose the same book for a variety of reasons. Others choose books because their friends have chosen the title. Paul selected *Anansi the Spider* to read because Rachel had shared her reading of it the day before. She told the class that it was about an African spider and sons helping their father. Paul said he liked to read legends to figure out if they can be true.

As children got the books for the day, they read in many different ways. Four girls were singing the words to the book, *Chicken Soup with Rice*. They sang it twice and then naturally retold the story to each other. Each one chimed in with a part she knew as they all turned the pages of the books. In a corner in front of a big easel, three children were reading *One Cold Wet Night* together. They took turns reading each page aloud and helped each other when they were stuck on words. James said, "You can skip that word and go to the end." At the "Published Books" table, three boys read the newly created version of *A House is a House for Me*. When all three were stuck on a word, Kha suggested they look in the picture for a clue. Ashanti chose the book, *Blueberries for Sal* by Robert McCloskey and read it in a way that worked for her. She made up the story from the pictures because she couldn't read the words. Earlier in the year, Mrs. K. had given a mini-lesson in which she modeled what to do when you don't know all the words.

As you can see from READ TIME in Mrs. K.'s room, children read in ways that suit them best for the books they select. Students read alone and they read in pairs. Friends sit together with multiple copies of a book and help each other with hard words. A child may share one book and then read from different books independently. Reading at listening stations where children can follow along in the text is also encouraged.

When children in Mrs. K.'s class are reading, they are negotiating meaning and have a good sense of whether they are understanding. There is no one dictating how students should read. In many cases, students are approximating behaviors of good readers. They skip parts, reread, talk to one another about what puzzles them or what they like, and they use each other as responders. Their talk focuses on story content. Indeed, these children are active initiators of their own learning.

During READ TIME, Mrs. K. reads, observes, and confers. She reads with different children and gives them strategies for dealing with hard words. She confers with readers for a few minutes as she moves around the room from one

child to another. She gets close to each child as she nudges children to reflect on why they are reading.

She listens intently trying to find out what children are thinking. She helps children verbalize the strategies they are using successfully. She listens as children tell each other, "You can skip that word and go to the end." She notices that children have a good sense of books that they did not have before. Sahid read James Marshall's *George and Martha* and chuckled, "This book makes being friends very funny."

SHARING SESSIONS

After the READ TIME, the children gather around the sharing chair to hear about each other's books and to ask questions of the reader. The teacher chooses two or three children to share, and these children are the only ones who bring their books to the share session. This is the time the children ask for details about a book so they can learn about the book. They explore and strive to make sense of what they have read or heard. The focus of this talk is on developing meaning.

Deshanta shared *Sleepy Bear* by Dobkovich. She began by saying that she chose the book because she likes animals and seasons. She shared the part about animals getting ready for winter. The children asked for more information.

"Was the bear sleeping all the time?"
"What kind of animals were around the bear?"
"Was it a true book?"

Gus shared *Franklin in the Dark* by Paulette Bourgeois and Brenda Clark. He wanted to tell the whole story from cover to cover. The teacher interrupted, "Can you tell us what this book was about?" Pretty soon children chimed in with questions about information they wanted to know. Before long, Gus was summarizing the book without telling every detail.

In the share session children exchange points of view all the time as they strive to get the reader's interpretation of the books. Jimmy shared *Desert Animals* by Jane Behrens. He told about his favorite part, the tortoise fitting in the desert hole, and he showed the pictures. Soon children contributed what they knew about desert animals. James wondered if there were lizards in the desert. Brandon assured him there were, especially in rocky places. At the end, the teacher said, "Let's talk about what kind of book this is. When an author writes about something true, what does he want to do for us?"

"Teach us," they replied.

"Mrs. Behrens had to learn a lot before she could write *Desert Animals*. She really knew a lot. She read about the desert and talked to people who had been in the desert. She had a lot of questions she answered before she wrote for us."

The children were so interested in finding out more about the desert that they could hardly wait till the next READ TIME when they can choose that book and others on the desert which will be in the special basket of books about the desert.

CONCLUSION

Reading workshops are powerful occasions for children to learn how to read and to learn to love reading. These workshops reflect the social nature of the reading

process and encourage cooperative learning. As children search for meaning in their reading, they can receive support from the group and depend on their classmates for help in clarifying meaning. Talking about reading is important because it forces readers to take a stance. Children are free to accept or reject someone else's ideas. Also, they are free to evaluate their own ideas. This interaction promotes individuality, creativity, and the ability to think like mature readers and writers. These children know that they can question what is written. Children in reading workshop are on their way to becoming competent critical readers.

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Helping Students Deal Effectively with Comprehension Failure

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Observations of classroom instruction reveal that rarely teachers provide explicit instruction on how to use comprehension strategies to improve reading (Durkin, 1978-79). Good readers instinctively know how to skim, scan, reread, take notes, and integrate information (Anderson & Armbruster, 1982). Less skilled readers, however, are not cognizant of how text features, strategy use, and readers' characteristics influence reading performance (Brown, Armbruster, & Baker, 1984; Myers & Paris, 1978). Research in the area of cognitive development has been applied to reading to determine exactly how children learn to read (Carr, 1981). Research has shown that in order for children to learn, the relevant schemata must be activated and organized (Anderson, Reynolds, Schallert, & Goetz, 1977); awareness and monitoring of thought processes while reading must occur (Brown, 1978); and the appropriate strategies must be summoned and employed (Paris, Lipson, & Wixson, 1983; Pressley, Goodchild, Fleet, Zajchowski, & Evans, 1989). Children's reading comprehension may be limited by a deficiency in any one of these areas.

Research suggests that poor readers are at a disadvantage because of deficiencies in their strategy repertoires (Brown, 1978; Garner, 1987). Strategies, according to Garner (1987) are deliberately planned activities undertaken by the learner to remedy perceived comprehension failure. Poor readers are not nearly as proficient as good readers in monitoring their comprehension or applying strategies to resolve comprehension failure (Gambrell & Bales, 1986; Garner, 1987).

In attempting to assist poor readers in overcoming comprehension failures, three instructional components appear to be significant. First, instruction must focus on helping students identify comprehension failure. Often younger and poorer readers expend so much energy and are so deeply entrenched in decoding printed text that comprehension does not occur. Developing recognition of *when* and *how* failures occur must be nurtured in order to reduce comprehension failure. Second, instruction must focus on strategies that students can use to avoid failures. The third component in helping students deal effectively with comprehension failure involves teaching appropriate fix-up strategies that can be employed when failure does occur. At the University of Maryland Summer Reading Clinic, an instructional program was developed for below-average readers in grades 3 and 4 based upon the

following instructional components which were designed to help them *identify, avoid,* and *remedy* comprehension failures:

1. What is a "CLUNK?" (identification of comprehension failure)
2. How to avoid "CLUNKS" (preventive strategies)
3. What to do if you meet a "CLUNK" (fix-up strategies)

WHAT IS A "CLUNK?"

Young readers in the University of Maryland Summer Reading Clinic were told that comprehension failures could be described as "clunks." A cartoon character was used to symbolize this abstract concept in order to help students identify with the term. Anderson (1980) describes the reading process as "clicking along" as long as the printed material is making sense. When comprehension failure occurs and something that is read does not make sense, then the reader is said to have met a "clunk." Students were taught to identify and distinguish between the two kinds of "clunks" that all readers encounter at one time or another: 1) *word* "clunks" (inability to recognize a word encountered in text) and 2) *meaning* "clunks" (inability to understand the message).

To help students develop an awareness of word "clunks," students were given sentences that contained an unfamiliar word which was essential for comprehension of the sentence. For example, in the following sentence the word *grotto* was unfamiliar to the students:

> The old man ran toward the *grotto*.

Students were able to identify the word "clunk" in the sample sentences which caused comprehension failure.

During the reading of narrative and expository texts, the term meaning "clunk" was used when referring to failure to gain meaning from the text when the words were familiar but the meaning was unclear. The teacher modeled what might occur when a meaning "clunk" was encountered by reading the passage aloud and using think aloud protocols with examples such as the following:

> If the balloons popped, the sound wouldn't be able to carry since everything would be too far away from the correct floor. A closed window would also prevent the sound from carrying. Since everything depends on electricity, a break in the wire would also cause problems. Of course the fellow could shout, but the human voice is not loud enough to carry that far (adapted from Bransford & Johnson, 1972).

The teacher pointed out that the students knew and understood all the words used in this passage. Students were then asked if they **understood** what this passage was about. Discussion centered upon why they felt they did not understand the passage. The teacher emphasized that this is an example of a meaning "clunk." Even though all the words are familiar in this passage, the meaning is not clear. In other words, the reader runs into a meaning "clunk." In this case, the meaning "clunk" can be resolved with more information. The teacher then shared the illustration below which clarifies the meaning of the passage. During the discussion of how the

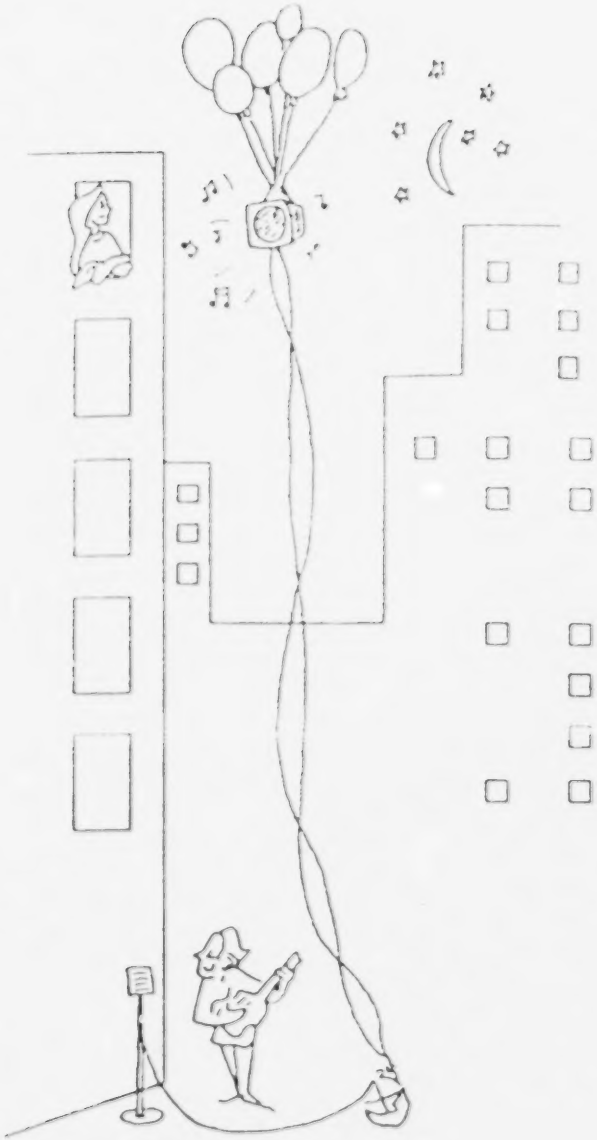


Figure 1 A modern-day Romeo scene.
Note: From "Contextual Prerequisites for Understanding. Some Investigations of Comprehension and Recall" by J. D. Bransford and M. K. Johnson, 1972, *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior, 11*, p. 718. Reprinted by permission of the author.

picture clarifies the meaning of the passage, it was emphasized that sometimes additional information will resolve comprehension failure.

Other examples were used to clarify the notions of word "clunk" and meaning "clunk" over the course of several weeks. Students were encouraged to share their own examples of word "clunks" and meaning "clunks" as they were encountered in the classroom. The teachers also found many opportunities to point out word "clunks" and meaning "clunks" during teacher read-aloud time. Because the teachers pointed out word "clunks" and meaning "clunks" as representative of their own reading behavior, students were responsive to sharing their own experiences with "clunks."

HOW TO AVOID "CLUNKS"

Several studies have reported success in improving reading comprehension through increasing student awareness of and use of strategies (Raphael & Pearson, 1982; Paris, Cross, & Lipson, 1984). Wilson and Russavage (1989) suggest a series of strategies that readers should be encouraged to use *prior* to reading, and *while* they are reading to improve comprehension. The six strategies represented in the following chart (which was displayed so students could refer to it) were adapted from those suggested by Wilson and Russavage (1989) for use with less-proficient readers in the clinic. Students were taught four specific strategies to use *before you read:* LOOK, THINK, PREDICT, and SET A PURPOSE. Students were then taught two specific strategies to use *while you read:* PICTURE THINGS, and QUESTION YOURSELF.

Each of the six strategies was presented and taught one at a time. Instruction on the use of each strategy spanned several days. The Guided Strategy Instruction model (Wilson & Gambrell, 1988) was used to teach each strategy. Guided Strategy Instruction focuses on the role of the teacher in guiding students toward the independent use of reading comprehension strategies. The four basic instructional steps of Guided Strategy Instruction are as follows: 1) *EXPLANATION*—teacher names the strategy and provides students with a rationale for using it, 2) *DEMONSTRATION*—teacher models how the strategy is used when reading text, 3) *GUIDED PRACTICE*—students read and practice using the strategy with teacher support, and 4) *INDEPENDENT APPLICATION*—students independently use the strategy when reading. After each of the six strategies was taught, it was added to the chart (Figure 2). This chart was displayed in the classroom for students to use while reading.

After the first strategy, *LOOK at pictures, titles, and headings,* was introduced, it was used *before* reading text selections so that students had practice making appropriate, text-based predictions. By familiarizing themselves with the features of the text such as pictures, headings, and titles, students brought a set of expectations with them to the text. Once students had a set of expectations, they could see if the text matched these expectations or if unexpected information was encountered.

The second step, *THINK about what you already know about the subject,* was an effort to activate prior knowledge about the subject matter that the students would be reading about. In doing this, students would be less likely to encounter disso-

How to Avoid CLUNKS

BEFORE READING:

LOOK at pictures, titles, and headings.

THINK about what you already know about the subject.

PREDICT what you think will happen before you read, while you read, and after you read.

SET A PURPOSE — What do you want to find out?

WHILE READING:

PICTURE THINGS in your mind as you read.

QUESTION YOURSELF — Does what I am reading make sense?

Figure 2

nance between the schemata that were activated and the text that was being read. Semantic maps, guest speakers, hands-on activities, and group discussions were utilized to tap existing schemata and bring it into the readers' present cognitive domain.

The third step, *PREDICT what you think will happen*, was given a great deal of attention because it was obvious that many of the students were reading from a "bottom-up" approach. In order to create a view of reading as a more meaning seeking process, students were exposed to a variety of prediction activities ranging

from the creation of a large wooden structure in the room where students had to make predictions (in writing) each day about what they thought it eventually would become, to the presentation of guided lessons where students' predictions were recorded on chart paper and were discussed after silent reading for verification or rejection based upon textual references.

SET A PURPOSE, the fourth step, was also related to predictive behaviors. Students in the clinic were taught how to set purposes through teacher modeling. Then they were asked to think of things that they would like to find out in the story. Purposes were recorded on chart paper and were investigated after silent reading to see if purposes were addressed in text.

The fifth step, *PICTURE THINGS*, was more commonly referred to as mental or visual imagery. Gambrell and Bales (1986) found that imagery-trained students were more likely to detect textual inconsistencies thereby enhancing comprehension. Students were encouraged to "try to picture the characters and events in your head as if it were a movie." Passages and stories that evoked vivid images were read to students and they, in turn, discussed and drew their images.

The final strategy for avoiding clunks was, *QUESTION YOURSELF—Does what I am reading make sense?* This metacognitive step is integral for any reader whose goal is creating meaning from text. When students realized that *everyone* experiences comprehension failure at some time or other, they were eager to share their own experiences about comprehension failure. Discussions revolved around *where* "clunks" occurred and *what* could be done to resolve them.

WHAT TO DO IF YOU MEET A "CLUNK!"

In the event that a comprehension failure should occur while reading, less-proficient readers are often unprepared to rectify the situation independently. This third instructional component in helping readers deal with comprehension failures enables students to effectively "fix-up" and regulate comprehension as warranted by text. Students were taught three specific strategies to use if they encountered a "clunk": SLOW DOWN, REREAD, and ASK SOMEONE.

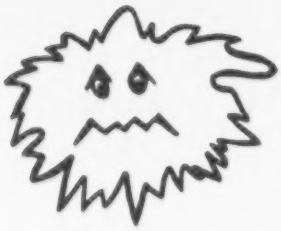
Each of these three strategies for fixing-up comprehension failure were also introduced to students using the Guided Strategy Instruction model. Follow-up discussions centered on identification of troublesome areas in the text and ways students resolved their problems.

CONCLUDING NOTES

Learning to identify "clunks," avoid "clunks," and knowing what to do if you meet a "clunk" can help less-proficient readers deal effectively with comprehension failure. Two features of the strategy instruction which were provided in the University of Maryland Summer Reading Clinic deserve reiteration:

1. Each of the strategies was taught using the four steps of the Guided Strategy Instructional model—**explanation, modeling, guided practice,** and **independent application.** The model requires a commitment of time and energy because for each strategy, instruction must take place during several days with particular emphasis on **guided practice.** Our experiences confirm Pearson's (1982) notion that poor readers benefit from extended guided practice in strategy training. **Guided practice** makes the use of strategies more routine and automatic for less proficient

What to Do if You Meet a CLUNK



SLOW DOWN — Read ahead slowly and carefully to see if the meaning gets clearer.

REREAD — If the meaning still is not clear reread the parts you are not sure of.

ASK SOMEONE who can help you understand better.

Figure 3

readers. The integration of *all* strategies into a coherent process which promotes transfer to other contexts, is a particularly difficult task that likewise requires long term commitment across all curriculum areas for several years.

2. The specific strategies selected for use with less proficient readers were simple, straightforward, and easy for students to learn, remember, and apply. Charts displayed in the classroom were "reminders" to students to use the strategies which had been taught.

Strategy training can result in improved comprehension for poor readers and can give them more control over their own learning. On the final day of the clinic, one nine-year old student was asked what he had learned in the five weeks of instruction. He boldly stated, "I learned that I'm a lot smarter than I thought I was!"

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AN IMPORTANT MESSAGE TO OUR READERS

An Open Letter to the Membership of the
State of Maryland International Reading Association Council

I want to thank the members of the State of Maryland International Reading Association Council for their efforts on behalf of the teachers and students in South Africa. I would also like to report to you on where we currently stand.

As many of you know, SoMIRAC is playing a leading role in initiating collaborative relationships between teachers and students in the black townships of South Africa and educators and students in the United States. These efforts are described in detail in an editorial entitled, "South African teachers & students need support" that was published in the September, 1990 issue of *The Reading Teacher*.

Briefly, however, let me review our efforts to date. In the last year, educators from Maryland, along with other educators and publishers from around the United States, have shipped about $15,000 worth of donated books to the black townships of Sharpeville and Sebokeng in the Vaal Triangle area of South Africa. In addition, we have begun a number of letter-writing exchanges between classes in South Africa and those in the United States. Finally, we have begun to sponsor memberships in the International Reading Association for several black teachers. Our efforts are small, but they demonstrate our belief in the importance of literacy. They also underscore our concern that South Africa can ill afford another "lost generation" of blacks deprived of the benefits of education.

The good news is that our efforts continue and each month we are making new connections with South Africans of all races who are struggling to overcome apartheid's devastating effects. The bad news is that such efforts take a long time, especially in the complex political climate of South Africa. The summer of 1990 has been a difficult and bloody one in many black townships including Sharpeville and Sebokeng. There is little that we can do, other than to wait out the violence.

Perhaps the most important message that I can share with you now is that your efforts are deeply appreciated by South African teachers and students in South Africa. One black student wrote, "It really brings great joy to me as a black South African to know that somebody cares that much. . . . I am 21 years old still learning basics from Math and English. I have missed all the basics and now they're affecting my whole life. . . . I know what apartheid can do! Or at most what it did. It's a sore that will never heal . . . I still suffer all the things they did to me. I'm still hurting till today. I hope you help those young kids before they go through what I'm going through."

The sentiments expressed by this student echo those expressed by many South Africans touched by your efforts. The fact that you care enough to share your expertise and your resources with teachers and students in South Africa is powerful testament to the good that people can do. I urge you to be patient and to continue to make connections with teachers and students in South Africa. In a very real sense, the world will be a better place to live because you cared.

Respectfully,
Peter Winograd
College of Education
University of Kentucky
Lexington, KY 40502

LITERACY: ISSUES AND PRACTICES, Volume 8, 1991

BOOK REVIEWS

Sometimes a Shining Moment: The Foxfire Experience. Eliot Wigginton. Garden City, New York. Anchor Books. Anchor Press/Doubleday. 1986. Paper 438pp $10.95.

Eliot Wigginton in *Sometimes a Shining Moment* led me into mental dancing lessons that may never stop!

Mr. Wigginton's book describes his experiences as a high school English teacher in Rabun County, Georgia where he involved his students, as part of their language arts curriculum, in interviewing and recording oral histories of ordinary people as they told how to dress a hog, build a log cabin, churn butter, or talked about "other affairs of plain living." Under his direction, his students became empowered, self motivated writers, organizers, photographers, and recording technicians who over the course of twenty years, as of 1985, published *Foxfire Magazine* and a series of nine *Foxfire* books.

What is so unusual about this book and how can it affect the way we teach our children? *Sometimes a Shining Moment*'s uniqueness lies in the author's candor in describing (warts and all) his journey into truly progressive education.

He traces his philosophical roots to John Dewey's 1917 essay, *Experience and Education*, a 91 page bit of mental dynamite which I felt impelled to buy and read before I finished Mr. Wigginton's book. Never in a month of Sundays would I have read anything by John Dewey after my encounter with his "hard-to-read" writing in my education courses. However, I listened when Eliot Wigginton said: "So how come, when I was learning to teach, the work of these individuals (referring to progressive educators like John Dewey) was not emphasized and memorized and internalized?"

Through the years, as he taught his Foxfire course, Mr. Wigginton learned how to take into account and give direction to what John Dewey calls "the power and purpose" of the student. He began to *work with* rather than *impose* ideas and direct all learning. This is the key! This is the excitement of *Sometimes a Shining Moment*.

Part I of this three-part book follows the author as he relates how it all began and how it developed along the way. He uses his journal entries and letters from students and colleagues to make it come alive.

In Part II, he presents for teachers what he calls "principles—touchstones that are never outdated," especially ones that deal with what school is all about and how other people, regardless of race or ability, should be treated.

Part III provides practical information—A Grammar and Composition Course—with a step-by-step description of how Mr. Wigginton taught his students to use tape recorders, to interview, to work in small groups, and finally to evaluate and review what they had learned. He shares with the reader but emphasizes that the course he teaches is not all he wants it to be and is not meant to be duplicated.

Think of this book as an idea book—one that forces the reader to rethink previously held concepts about the quality of learning that takes place in classrooms. Its effect on me has

been so powerful, I find myself "bending ears" whenever I get a chance—asking teachers and even non-teaching friends if they know about the Foxfire experience. Because I work with writing workshops at the elementary level, I now look for ways to connect with the inner "power and purposes" of student writers and wonder how I can elicit from them a Foxfire-like project that would start the never-ending process called life-long-learning.

That project may not happen, but the ideas dancing around in my mind as a result of reading this book, exercise my brain cells, keep me on my toes, and provide me with immense pleasure. Who could ask any more of a book?

If you like making connections, read:

Dewey, J. (1963). *Experience and education*. New York: Collier-Macmillan.

Meek, A. (1990) "On 25 Years of Foxfire: A Conversation with Eliot Wigginton." *Educational Leadership, 47*, 30-35.

Rose Marie Hellmann
Montgomery County Public Schools

Reading in the Middle School. (Second edition.) Gerald G. Duffy (Editor). Newark, Delaware. International Reading Association. 1990. Paper. 235 pp. $11.50.

The second edition of *Reading in the Middle School*, a short course in curriculum instruction and programs, is a good book to carry with your lunch, to leave on your desk, and certainly to read. Not only will it make you look knowledgable, but if read carefully, it is sure to help you organize all that you do know. This four-part research-based rationale for "fulfilling the potential of the middle school as it relates to the development of literacy" may even inspire you to fulfill your potential for creating a literate environment in which "real language and real literacy are valued and promoted" within your class and throughout your school.

The authoritative authors never lose sight of the "institutional context" of the school and of students. Model by model, process by process, they relate the teaching of reading and writing to the realities of adolescent development.

Like the middle school children we teach, we ourselves are at different stages of development. Some of us seek specifics we can share at the next reading meeting. We will eagerly devour the chapter on assessment (Part 2 "Curriculum and Instruction in Reading), digest new "buzz" words like "situated assessment" (p. 130) and "collaborative (teacher and student) assessment" (p. 126), and savor such verities as "assessment should be a natural part of the teaching/learning process" and "the farther away we move from someone else's test, the greater our need for knowledge of both reading and writing processes."

Some of us need a trouble shooter's guide, "Middle Schools on $5.00 a Day" or "How to Deliver Services in a Seven Period Day." We will be able to identify with one of three systems for organizing and managing a middle school program representing teachers with different backgrounds and philosophies, although this book fails to differentiate among the developmental levels of sixth, seventh, and eighth grade or materials for each.

Some reading/resource teachers and specialists may need, once and for all, to put skills, strategies and content "in their place," at least to route this book to every content teacher

and administrator in the school. The chapter, "Content Knowledge: Creating A New Framework" (Part 2) presents the balanced view of "process into content" and highlights cognitive processes "useful only to the extent that they are applied to content." It emphasizes the role of domain knowledge (knowledge that can be transferred to new learning situations and flexibly used) in a middle school and assures us that without sufficient domain knowledge, comprehension is impeded and strategies cannot be used appropriately. Herein, teachers can find words to voice and support deep convictions, to say "as subject matter changes, so must strategy selection," that "it is a student's ability to apply . . . . skills in a meaningful context that merits our evaluation (Chapter 9, Assessing Reading and Writing, Part 2) (p. 133).

Some of us in schools on the brink of "Reading in the New Decade" (Part 4) will focus easily on the visions in this "crystal ball chapter." To others, the ideas of student mediation of instruction, or the evaluation of teachers based on evidence they themselves provide, will seem more remote. From any angle, the view is optimistic that the middle school movement, generally, and literacy programs, specifically, possess "a more coherent and substantive direction" than in the past.

I only wish the Editor had confronted the issues of accomplishing change (Part 3: "Implementing Reading Programs") at the very beginning, immediately after a historical perspective of middle schools. It would have established the credibility of this resource intended for practitioners, a book that may be a manual for rethinking for many.

Thankfully, the Editor is "knowledgable about the complexity involved in educating adolescents." The task of implementing a middle school reading program in which the key word is "interaction" (of processes of literacy and instruction that are complementary and mutually supportive) is as formidable as it is compelling.

The Editor does more than compare "Recommended Reading Practices with "Actual Reading Practices (Part 1) as well as account for the fact that too many middle schools fall short of the educational purpose which they were intended to serve. The chapters "Implementing Content Area Reading with Limited Finances" (Chapter 13, Part 3) and "Improving Staff Development through Cooperation" (Chapter 14, Part 3) are as useful as the examples of interdisciplinary units in "Developing Integrated Programs" (Chapter 12, Part 3).

The authors assert that reading in a content area should be viewed as an integral skill, supported by specific instructional techniques and ways of managing a classroom, much as pieces of a puzzle fit together. A diagram entitled, "Staff Development as Interlocking Pieces of Puzzle," illustrates the analogy and is one of the best of the many graphics which appear in this book.

As a matter of fact, the chapters of this book add up to more than the sum of its parts. A sense of the mission of the middle school emerges, powerful and with a strong message of optimism. Whatever your stage in developing literacy instruction, you can gain valuable advice from this practical guide.

Marlene Hartstein
Montgomery County Public Schools

Published by the INTERNATIONAL READING ASSOCIATION

AWARD WINNING BOOKS

Two IRA books won ***1990 Educational Press Association of America Distinguished Achievement Awards*** *in the category of "Special Publication."*

Emerging Literacy: Young Children Learn to Read and Write
Dorothy S. Strickland
Lesley Mandel Morrow, Editors

Many leaders in the field of literacy contribute effective ideas to help young children read and write with ease and enjoyment. Special "Ideas You Can Use" sections focus on practical examples for home or classroom.
1989, 170 pp., ISBN 0-87207-351-3

Magazines for Children
Donald R. Stoll, Editor

An annotated list of more than 120 children's periodicals, aimed at infants through teenagers. Helpful subject index, age index, and ideas for using magazines in home, school, and library make this guidebook a must for all teachers, parents, and librarians.
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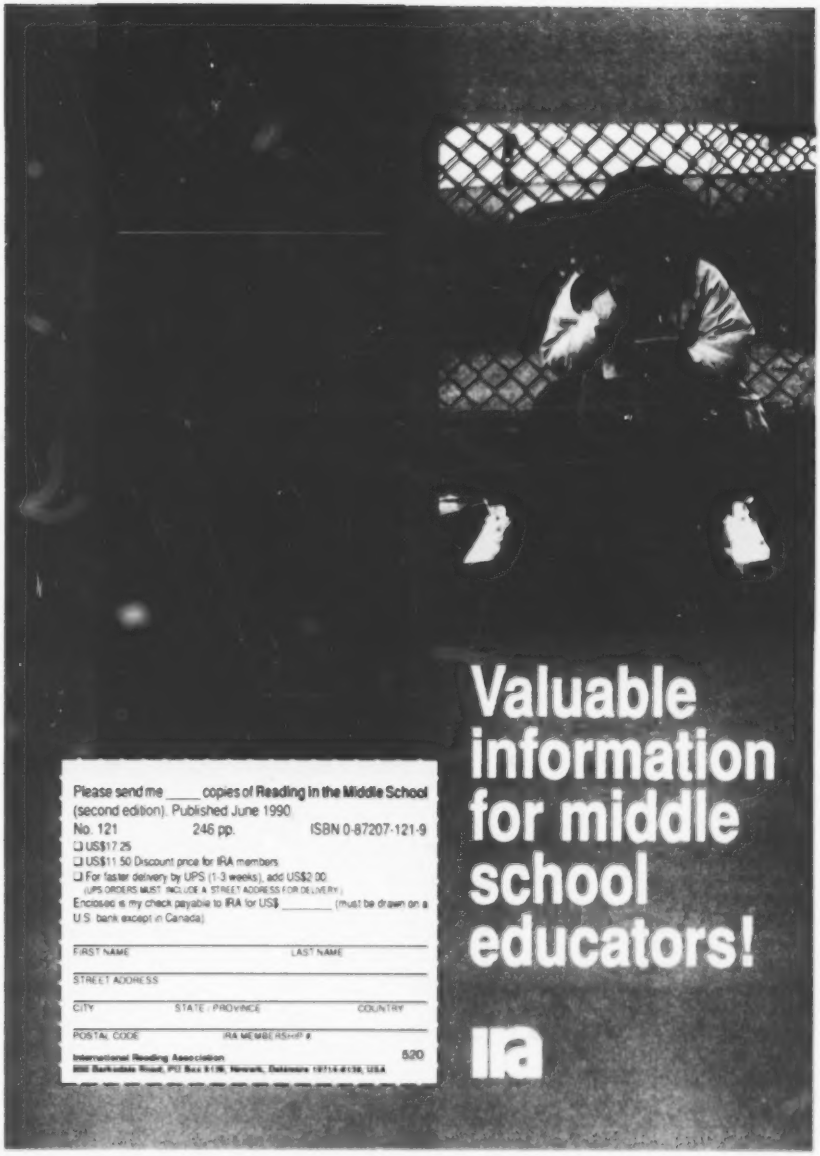
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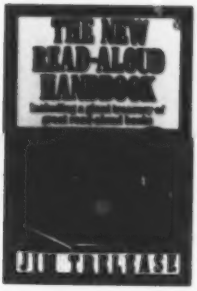

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